The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 21, 1886.

The Week.

THE case of Mr. E. W. Armstrong, some time Collector of Internal Revenue at Utica, in this State, is a peculiarly pathetic one, and calls for an expression of respectful sympathy, not with him, but with his friend and patron, Mr. Roscoe Conkling of the New York Bar. Armstrong was one of Mr. Conkling's most faithful henchmen. Mr. Conkling got him his Collectorship in the immediate neighborhood of his "home," and Armstrong used to work for him at Albany in the time stolen from the Government. He was one of "the Spartan band" who, Mr. Conkling said, had to struggle against "abhorrent and forbidden forces" in trying to send him back to the Senate after his resignation in 1881. In fact, Armstrong was an intensely practical and faithful man. The other day, however, President Cleveland dismissed him, and appointed a Mr. Beach in his stead. The case appeared on its surface a peculiarly revolting illustration of the President's hypocrisy in the matter of civil-service reform, and Senator Morrill, of the Finance Committee, accordingly inquired the reasons for it, and the Secretary of the Treasury promptly furnished them. They came in the shape of a letter from Armstrong himself, which is said to have made the Senate roar with laughter. It informed the President, in bad grammar and bad spelling, that although ostensibly a Stalwart Republican, Armstrong had really during the last campaign covertly worked hard for Cleveland's election, and if the President would keep him in office, as a Republican, he would continue to serve the Democrats in every way in his power, and particularly in the old-fashioned way of removals and appointments. For a "Spartan" to figure in such a transaction is enough to make one despair of human nature, and to make Mr. Conkling's manly form shake with some kind of emotion when he hears of it.

The suggestion, which is said to have emanated from the President, that if the Senate wishes to discuss his removals upon information furnished by him, it should be done in open session, will strike nearly everybody outside the Senate as excellent. There is not a single reason for discussing nominations in secret session at all which will bear examination, except the risk of hurting the feelings of applicants for office by making public the objections made to their appointment. But if the discussion were public, we may rely upon it there would be fewer applicants for office whose feelings could be hurt in this way—that is, there would be fewer against whom serious charges could be made, and it would be an end to Senatorial bargaining, which is one of the great hindrances to reform. If the President has been making unjustifiable removals and bad appointments, it is not the Senate only which should know the particulars, but the whole public. If any highly-placed politician on either side has succeeded in inducing the President to make improper nominations, it ought to be made an open secret. There is no such cure for this sort of abuse as letting all the world know about it. Therefore we say that an arrangement between the Republican Senators and the President for the public examination of all his removals would be greatly welcomed by the country, and would do a world of good.

The Supreme Court of the United States on Monday rendered a decision of considerable importance in a test case as to the power of a State to impose a discriminating tax upon a "drummer" from another State, who seeks to sell goods manufactured in the latter State. A number of States have sought to protect home industry by levying taxes, often so heavy as to be practically prohibitory, upon "commercial travellers" representing similar industries in other States. The agent of a Chicago liquor house was arrested in Grand Rapids, Mich., two years ago, for soliciting and taking orders without the license required by Michigan law to be taken out by any such outside dealer, and the State Supreme Court sustained the lower tribunal in punishing him for violation of this statute. The Federal Supreme Court, however, pronounces the Michigan law void because it operates as a regulation of commerce among the several States, and is therefore repugnant to the Constitution of the United States, which gives the exclusive power of regulating such commerce to Congress.

If the protectionists were consistent, they would press for an amendment to the Constitution annulling the clause which intrusts to Congress the regulation of commerce among the States and thus permit free trade to prevail between the different commonwealths. If Michigan industries need to be protected from the competition of her next neighbor on the north and east, they ought to be protected from the competition of her next neighbors on the south or west, and the fact that the former happens to be Canada and the latter members of the American Union does not affect the principle. Indeed, the principle ought to be carried still further, as some people have tried to carry it. When the Rhode Island Legislature was petitioned a few years ago to prevent the running of cheap trains over the Boston and Providence Railroad, on the ground that there was already too much free trade between Boston and Providence, and that the latter city needed protection, the petitioners were only living up to the protectionist creed. So, too, the people of Worcester were merely carrying out the same principle to its logical conclusion when they besought the Massachusetts Legislature to stop cheap trains over the Boston and Albany Railroad, on the ground that such trains encouraged Worcester people to go to Boston and buy their goods there, instead of purchasing them at home. If protection is really so beneficent a system as its advocates claim, the more the country has of it the better, and the greater the pity that the framers of the Constitution, in their short-sighted folly, placed any obstacle in the way of its universal application.

The House has passed by a large majority the Hoar Presidential Succession Bill, precisely as it came from the Senate, and it has since received the President's signature and become a law. All the familiar objections made to it through the newspapers were raised in the House, but made no more impression there than they did in the Senate. The best constitutional lawyers in both bodies were satisfied with the measure as it was drawn, and their judgment is likely to be sufficiently sound to be followed with safety. The bill is probably not perfect, but its defects are of slight moment compared with the great gain of having the question of succession settled in a way that insures public order, whatever happens. This gain ought to be followed by the adoption of Senator Edmunds's plan for regulating the counting of the electoral vote. We should then be safely past two great perils which have hung over the country for many years.

Secretary Bayard will have the deep sympathy of men of all parties in the great affliction which has befallen him in the sudden death of his daughter. The last year has been to him necessarily full of care and anxiety. He has quitted a secure position in the Senate, which he filled most creditably and most usefully in the eyes of the country, in order to assist his own party in the arduous work of forming a new administration, after twenty-five years of exclusion from power. Such a task has necessarily been often very perplexing. No one can fill the State Department and escape all the pitfalls which the present organization of our diplomatic service spreads by the score before unwary feet. To Senator Bayard, the ordinary cares of the place to any man have been aggravated by almost morbid anxiety to do right. In such difficulties the best men find home counsels and sympathy probably the greatest source of strength. Owing to her mother's protracted ill-health, his daughter was to Mr. Bayard something more than even the best daughters usually are. Her death, therefore, is perhaps to him as great a calamity as could befall a public man. It will, as we have said, soften toward him the hearts of his sternest critics, and possibly even silence for the moment the blackguards of the press who have been lately trying to make a little money by vilifying him.

The report of Mr. Cullom's Committee on Railroads has been presented to the Senate, and recommends that Congress should undertake the regulation of the business of transportation, because of "admitted abuses of its management, and of acknowledged discrimination between persons and places in its practical operation—evils which it is possible to reach and remedy through the exercise of the powers granted by the Constitution." For this purpose it proposes a Commission with power to arbitrate between the shippers and the railroads, to collect information, and to make its findings of fact prima-facie evidence in all legal proceedings. Such a Commission would undoubtedly be very useful in allaying irritation on the part of the public,

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and in diffusion of knowledge about the real conditions of transportation. But that it would give the country any great improvement on the facilities now provided by the competition of the roads themselves, we must not expect. Greater cheapness of transportation or a more rapid decline in rates than competition has produced within the last twenty years, it would be folly to look for from any Government interference. The discrimination between persons and places, too, which is the cause of the chief complaint that angry shippers make against railroads, consists really, for the most part, in selling cheaper at wholesale than at retail, which is what all dealers do. In carrying people or goods 100 miles at a less rate than 10 miles, railroads are really influenced by the familiar motive which induces the applewoman to sell three apples for five cents while charging two cents for one. All business is, indeed, carried on on this principle. James Fisk, jr.'s lamented father would not tell a lie, as we all now know, for a York shilling, but he would tell eight for a dollar.

The report quotes from testimony of Mr. Edward Atkinson, showing that railway property now constitutes one-fifth of the accumulated capital of the country, gives employment to 650,000 people, and moves 400,000,000 tons of freight annually, one-half of which is fuel and food, and so cheaply that the Massachusetts mechanic can now procure the transportation of a year's supply of food from a distance of 1,000 miles for the proceeds of one day's labor. This is a very wonderful story, and we must not in cudgelling our brains over the railroad problem forget that it is the much-abused corporations which have performed this amazing feat and that it is not likely that the wisdom of Congress is great enough to introduce many improvements into railroad management, although that it can introduce some is unquestionable.

The devices of the protected classes to prevent trade with foreign countries are of almost infinite variety and cunning. Here is one that has just been introduced in Congress by Senator Platt, of Connecticut:

"A bill to prevent frauds on American manufacturers.

"*Be it enacted*, etc., that no article of foreign manufacture shall be admitted at any custom-house of the United States, when such article, or the box or package containing it, is so stamped, marked, branded, or labelled as to represent that such article was manufactured in the United States."

On the surface this bill looks like a measure to protect trade-marks, and prevent imposition on the public. The title of the bill contains a very neat stump speech: "to prevent frauds on American manufacturers." But, like most stump speeches inserted in titles and preambles, it is itself a fraud, and the only fraud connected in any way with the transaction sought to be prevented. Imitation of trade-marks and that sort of thing is already effectually prevented by the laws governing importations, and of course something else is had in view in the proposed new measure. We have not to look far to find out what this is. Of late years it has become a practice among jobbers in this country to advertise themselves and their trade by ordering goods made abroad to be stamped with the names of their firms, just as they get wrapping paper printed with their names and places of business. Nobody is harmed by this. "John Smith, Kansas City, Mo.," is stamped on the blade of a pocket-knife. This does not harm John Jones, of Meriden, Ct. John Jones, of Meriden, has his own name and trade-mark. He is entitled to them and he is protected in the use of them against all the world. But his rights are no greater than those of John Smith, of Kansas City. The latter has a perfect right to put his name on his own pocket-knives, and to do this either at the place of manufacture or at the place of sale. If the bill in question had proposed to put a higher rate of duty on goods so stamped, the little game would be exposed at once, because attention would then be directed to its merits, instead of being diverted by the catchword "to prevent frauds on American manufacturers." The framers of this pretty measure did not venture on such a step. They thought it would be a safer and surer plan to absolutely prohibit such importations than to put say 75 per cent. duty on goods stamped "John Smith, Kansas City," in place of 50 per cent. on the very same goods not stamped at all.

It is plain that John Smith has the right to stamp his pocket-knives when he gets them into his own store, and to stamp them in any way he pleases so that he does not infringe any other man's trade-mark. For all purposes of trade it would make no difference whether the stamping was done at Sheffield or at Kansas City. The effect would be the same. But of course it is much cheaper to have the stamping done where the goods are made, because the process of stamping can be done in the process of manufacture. It costs nothing to stamp goods in this way, whereas to stamp them at the place of sale requires a new manipulation. The passage of Senator Platt's bill is therefore equivalent to an additional duty on the goods. But an additional duty is exactly what the heavily protected manufacturers of cutlery do not dare to ask for. They know that they could not get it, and they do not want to draw attention to the exorbitant rates of duty they are already enjoying, amounting in some cases to 200 per cent. So they resort to this device to accomplish the same result. They want to deprive John Smith of his natural right to advertise. The reason why they are so anxious about it is that John Smith likes to sell goods with his own name on rather than with John Jones's name on.

One of the most mischievous notions set afloat by the silver men when their craze first started, now nearly ten years ago, was that banks chartered by the Government had some special duty towards the currency, besides keeping safe what was deposited with them by their customers. Some of the zealots, Mr. Brown of Georgia, for instance, think that a bank is bound to "favor silver," and help it to circulate even when its customers do not want it. The fact is, that it is no more the business of a banker to do this than of a newspaper editor or of a member of Congress. The one duty of a banker about money left with him on deposit is to give back to the depositor, when called on, the full value of what was deposited with him. A banker has nothing to do with settling what kind of money people ought to use. His business is simply to take care of the kind they do use, and to return to every man what he got from him and nothing less. If any one is to blame about the failure of silver to circulate, it is the people; and what these silver Congressmen ought to try is the old plan of making it penal to refuse or fail to employ silver in business. Why not pass an act obliging everybody to keep a certain minimum amount—according to his means—of silver dollars in the house, and to use silver dollars in all payments under say $10,000, instead of checks?

The evidence appears to be accumulating that the Blainites have agreed to encourage the Democrats not to touch the silver problem, and thus to provide for a period of financial uncertainty and resulting commercial depression during the remainder of President Cleveland's term. The Western Republican silver men are beginning to recede from their recent admissions that the coinage ought to be suspended; and the wise old heads who represent Blaine in this part of the world are wagging away in the same sense. That there is a certain shrewdness in this course on the part of the Blaine firm, there is no doubt. The Democrats have always shown a fatal facility in falling into snares of this sort. It would not be unlike them to let the United States credit fall ten points in the markets of the world, and bring back the business of the country to the condition of fluctuating and uncertain values from which we escaped in 1879, by way of preparation for the election of 1888.

News comes from Dakota that much agitation exists there in consequence of instructions received by loan agents from their principals in the East not to make any further loans on mortgage, or to renew any, unless it it is stipulated in the contract that payment shall be made in gold or the equivalent thereof. Those who lend the money lend gold, and, being apprehensive that "dollars" may signify something 20 per cent. less valuable than gold when the loans become due, unless an express stipulation is put in the contract, they have ordered their agents to require such stipulation. One of the few things left us by the Supreme Court in the way of sound money is the right to make contracts in any kind of money we please. The court says that it will enforce contracts payable in gold, silver, tobacco, paper, coon-skins, whetstones, or anything else the parties choose, provided the stipulations are made in express terms. As the court's strong point is contracts, there is good reason to believe that loans made in gold to-day, calling for payment in gold one year or five years hence, will be enforced by all courts, including those of Dakota. We should not wonder if there were some squirming against this kind of contracts in Dakota, and, of course, Senator Beck will discover in them new evidence of the existence of "organizations of wealth." But it amounts to nothing more than this, that it gives all the silver to those who say they like it. The Dakota people are reported to be very much in favor of the "dollar of the fathers." The new clause inserted in their mortgages merely enables them to retain for their own use as many as they succeed in earning.

It is no new thing for postmasters to attend conventions; indeed, before civil-service reform

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was heard of, it used to be charged that Republican conventions were often little more than assemblies of postmasters and other Federal officials. A convention of a very different sort is called to meet in Chicago next month; it will be composed exclusively of postmasters, but their meeting has no political object. For years postmasters of the third and fourth class—the former comprising those appointees of the President (about 1,900 in number) whose salaries range between $1,000 and $2,000, and the latter the incumbents of the 49,000 offices whose pay falls below $1,000 a year—have complained bitterly and reasonably of sundry grievances. Third-class postmasters are compelled to give all their time to their offices, and yet are compelled to pay out of their salaries the bills for rent, fuel, clerk hire, and other running expenses, although all such expenses are paid by the Government in the cases of first and second-class postmasters, who receive much larger salaries. The fourth-class postmaster is required to provide boxes for the office himself, and then divide the income from box-rents with the Government. There are some minor grounds of complaint, but these cover the main points. Postmasters-General have repeatedly recommended action by Congress to relieve the postmasters, but no effective legislation has yet been secured. The postmasters have finally concluded to try the effect of an organized movement, and delegates from all parts of the country are to meet in Chicago on the 15th of February, to formulate their complaints and press them upon public attention.

The Board of Directors of the Produce Exchange of New Orleans calls for support for "schemes to attract trade to the city, and to suspend at least the diversion of what they have left." The city before the war used to export 70 per cent. of the cotton crop; it now exports only 26 per cent. It used to import 80 per cent. of the coffee; it now imports only 7 per cent. of it. In fact, the place is going down hill both relatively and absolutely, in spite of the enormous expenditure on the improvement of the port. Its fate illustrates strikingly the change which the improvements in transportation are making in the channels of trade. Before the days of railroads, great rivers produced great cities at their mouths, if there was a good harbor and a good climate. In the case of New Orleans, the river was so great that it produced a great city, in spite of the poorness of the harbor and the badness of the climate and soil. But now that the railroads have robbed the river of so much of its usefulness, the climate and soil and the badness of the harbor are killing the city by inches. Nothing but an extraordinary outburst of energy on the part of the population can save it; but nowadays, when travel is so easy, the energetic go, like the rest of the world, where the obstacles to success are the fewest.

Senator Sherman was as vague as politicians usually are in the advice he gave the Ohio Legislature last week about the labor question. "You ought to legislate," he said, "so as to secure to the laborer, as far as the law can go, the highest wages and the advantages of social life." Now, everybody has looked at the matter in this way for ages. What is making all the trouble about labor in politics is the difficulty of deciding how far the law can go. There are laborers who think that the law ought to insure them a good income all the year around and a piano for their daughters. And there are capitalists who think the law can do no more for the laborer than for the lawyer or farmer—that is, can only protect him in the pursuit of his industry and the enjoyment of his earnings and savings. Which is right, is what we need to know. We should think the laborer would by this time be thoroughly sick of the politician's see-saw about "the rights of capital on the one hand, and the rights of labor on the other," which party platforms are apt to contain.

We quoted from the *Independent* in December last a letter written to the editor of that journal by the Rev. Anson West, D. D., of Talladega, Alabama, containing this passage:

"I have, just out of the press, published by the Southern Methodist Publishing House, Nashville, Tenn., a book bearing the title 'The Old and the New Man; or Sin and Salvation.' What will you charge me for *two editorials a column long in your paper, giving a favorable notice* of my book? I think my book possesses merit, and would like to get for it a favorable and rousing notice from the press of the country."

The *Independent's* reply to this was that its price for such notices was a "million dollars a line." We advised the Rev. Dr. West not to be discouraged at this high tariff, but to go to some of our esteemed contemporaries who are in the habit of printing "reading matter" for money down, where he would undoubtedly get what he desired for a few hundred dollars. Instead of taking this advice, the Rev. Dr. West sends us a long letter on a printed slip containing a defence of his conduct. He complains that his letter to the *Independent* has been made the basis for insinuations "which seem to disparage his integrity and his common sense"; that he intended it "simply as a business letter," and that if all business consultations were treated as his letter was, he "feels sure that the interests of society would raise a protest." He declares that he had no thought of buying the *Independent*, or of "asking it to do anything out of the ordinary course of journalism," and did not suspect his letter of convicting him of "being either a knave or a fool." He concludes with the unprejudiced observation that his book has merit, and that in securing for it notice and circulation he "serves the cause of truth and religion." We are afraid that there is a good deal more of the "Old Man" in the Rev. Dr. West than he has been able to get into his book.

A new feature has been introduced into the sermon reporting of one of our morning contemporaries, by estimating how much the congregation of a certain church is "worth" in money. The "regular worshipping congregation" before the recent death of two noted members was worth, it is said, $300,000,000, but since these melancholy events the valuation of the body has dropped to $200,000,000, or thereabouts. We think, to make these estimates really instructive, the value of the church lot and the buildings ought to be added to the wealth of the congregation. The first example we can recall of this mode of "sizing up" the attendants at a church occurred some years ago in the account of a wedding, in a religious weekly of this city, in which, after giving the names of some of the persons standing around the bride and groom, the writer said: "That little group in front of the altar represented at least $20,000,000." Following out this idea, it might be a good plan, and would prevent mistakes, to have every man's worth, who had more than a million, stated on a plate or card on his pew door—a suggestion we have heard made with regard to the cards on the plates at dinner parties. A brief account on the card of the financial condition of each guest, if a rich man, would greatly add to the interest of New York entertainments, especially for foreigners who have not heard of our local notables, and often do not know in what distinguished company they find themselves.

"Does prohibition prohibit?" Let Maine answer. The total number of persons committed to jail in that State during 1885 was 3,395, of whom 188 were sentenced for selling liquors (an increase of 38 over 1884), and 1,761 for drunkenness (an increase of 441 over 1884).

Mr. Justin McCarthy, in an article on Home Rule in the *Contemporary Review*, ridicules the fears of Englishmen about home rule leading to separation, or attempts at separation, or in fact leading to anything but a peaceable connection with England, like that of the American States with the general Government. He forgets, however, that nine tenths of the advocates of home rule accompany its advocacy with expressions of the fiercest detestation of the British Empire. In fact, of all the fears entertained by Englishmen about the consequences of yielding to Parnell, this seems to us the most reasonable and justifiable. Most of the others have a somewhat chimerical and ridiculous air, and sound a little like the fears of some of the opponents of emancipation here, that the negroes would, if free, go and die of starvation in the woods sooner than work.

Our friend "G. B.," of Boston, who so often treats our readers to a dose of his political panacea—the concentration of political responsibility on individuals instead of assemblies—must be somewhat disheartened, if anything can dishearten so persistent a preacher, by what is passing in France, where the individual continues to wither in a rather startling manner. Ministries are there formed and overthrown at the rate now of one in six months, without anybody seeming to care. More significant than all is that M. Grévy has been reëlected President of the Republic, at the age of seventy-three, without any opposition, or indeed, any sign of public interest. The London *Economist*, commenting on this, draws the conclusion that we are probably witnessing the establishment in France of a new kind of government, which it calls "Cameral Government," that is, government by a Chamber en masse, instead of by individual ministers leading a Chamber or supported by it. Moreover, it intimates that this may possibly be a gain to the world in releasing communities from dependence on great men, who are not always forthcoming.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 13, to TUESDAY, January 19, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the Senate on Wednesday Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kan.) offered a resolution, "That in the opinion of the Senate the compulsory coinage of silver dollars directed by the law of February 28, 1878, should not be suspended until the aggregate reaches the sum of $500,000,000." It was laid over for the present.

More work was accomplished by the Senate on Wednesday in executive session than on any previous day of the present Congress. Over 150 postmasters were confirmed, and, in addition, a long list of navy promotions, including Captain Walker to be Chief of the Bureau of Navigation.

In the House of Representatives on Wednesday, Mr. Curtin (Dem., Pa.), addressing the Speaker, said: "It was your pleasure, sir, to do me the honor to place me first on the list of the Committee on Banking and Currency. I did intend to state to this House my reasons for declining that honor, but on the advice of many friends, and of the sentiment of the public journals of the country, I have concluded to offer no reasons of my own. For reasons of my own, which seem to be understood by my friends and colleagues on this floor, I do ask this House to excuse me from the important duty as Chairman of the Committee to which you have assigned me." Mr. Curtin was excused. This devolves the Chairmanship upon Mr. Miller, of Texas.

The House on Friday passed the Presidential Succession Bill as it came from the Senate, by a vote of 183 to 77. All the negative votes but two came from the Republican side. Thirty-seven Republicans voted with the Democrats who supported the bill.

President Cleveland on Tuesday affirmed the Hoar Presidential Succession Bill, which is, therefore, a law.

The House River and Harbor Committee on Friday fixed the limit of the River and Harbor Bill at $11,000,000. The bill which President Arthur vetoed in 1882 appropriated $18,743,875.

On Monday in the House Mr. Wadsworth (Rep., Ky.) introduced for reference a resolution declaring that the President has done what he could to keep silver, gold, and paper on an equality. He desired that this should be referred to the Judiciary Committee. Mr. Weaver, representing the silver men, moved its reference to the Coinage Committee. The latter motion prevailed by a vote of 159 yeas to 57 nays. The silver men claim that on any question involving silver they have about 100 majority.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Frye offered a resolution to the effect that in the opinion of the Senate the President's recommendation for a new fisheries commission should not be carried out. Mr. Edmunds declared that the agreement entered into by the Administration involved grave questions as to the powers of the President. While not strictly a treaty, its terms did practically and precisely what a treaty would do, and there might be a question as to the assumption by the President of rights and powers not given him by the Constitution. Messrs. Hoar and Dawes declared that no American fisherman would suffer injury by the termination of the treaty, and Mr. Frye sneered at the efforts of Minister West in behalf of American fishermen, and declared that his action and that of the Administration were the most marvellous pieces of business in the history of diplomacy.

Senator Voorhees (Dem., Ind.) has introduced bills for the admission of Montana and Washington Territories as States.

Secretary Manning on Saturday sent a communication to Senator Morrill, Chairman of the Committee on Finance, in which he acknowledged the receipt of his letter requesting the reasons for the suspension of a certain Collector of Internal Revenue, and the appointment of another person in his place, and then said: "I would reply that as yet I have received no directions from the President in relation to transmitting the papers and information called for."

"The following," said a Democrat in high authority, "may be regarded as the Administration's position in regard to the nominations before the Senate: The Tenure-of-Office Act is considered to have been practically nullified by the partial repealing act of 1869. Since that repealing act the President has no longer been required, even by form of law, to send to the Senate the reasons for suspensions. As to original appointments, the Administration is of opinion that the Senate, as a matter of right, is not entitled to receive any information from the President on demand as to his reasons for appointments. But it has been the custom for the Executive department to furnish such information as a courtesy, and that courtesy will be continued. The case, however, is different in the matter of suspensions. The Senate has no constitutional right to concern itself with the President's reasons for suspensions. But the President wishes to observe the courtesy due the Senate to the furthest extent possible consistent with the maintenance intact of the Presidential prerogative. If Senators, as a matter of courtesy, desire the reasons for certain suspensions, those reasons will be furnished. If, however, the Senate shall demand these reasons as a right, they will be withheld. Everything will depend upon the form of the request."

Secretary Lamar has decided that the Government should bring suit to test the validity of Bell's telephone patent.

It is known authoritatively that the Republican Senators in caucus did agree upon these two points: First, that there shall be no rejections except for causes which would insure the rejection of nominees of a Republican President under like circumstances; upon this subject the Stalwarts were signally defeated. Second, that the information called for in cases of suspension must be furnished; and that if it shall be withheld, the respective Cabinet officers will be served with a summons *duces tecum* by the Senate committees

A test suit was decided in the interest of commercial travellers by the United States Supreme Court on Monday. The court held, Judge Bradley delivering the opinion, that a discriminating tax imposed by a State, operating to the disadvantage of the products of other States when introduced into the first-mentioned State, is in effect a regulation in restraint of commerce among the States, and as such is a usurpation of the power conferred by the Constitution upon the Congress of the United States.

Senator Sherman was reelected Senator of the United States from Ohio in the joint legislative session on Wednesday. He addressed the Legislature on Thursday, urging the members to revise the State election laws. "I invite your attention," said he, "to the example set by the great State of New York. In that State in 1868 great frauds were perpetrated by a man whose name will be repudiated by any party, Boss Tweed. Then it was that men of both political parties went to work and reformed their election laws. If it had not been done, civil war would have been inevitable. Men of both political parties resolved upon reformation, and it resulted in the best election law in the world. In the dispute last fall over the election they awaited the announcement of the official vote, and the matter was ended. One of the most distinguished men to bring about this reform was Samuel J. Tilden (applause), and I am glad to speak of him here. In this respect I heartily refer to the recommendations made by Governor Hoadly in his annual message, which express my sentiments better than I could do."

The Ohio House on Wednesday appointed a committee of five to investigate Donavin's charges of bribery in connection with the election of Mr. Payne as United States Senator.

The committees as announced in both branches of the New York Legislature on Wednesday are generally approved by those who hope to see good work done. The following are among the chairmen in the Senate: Sloan, Finance; Comstock, Judiciary; Low, Railroads; Hendricks, Cities. In the Assembly: Erwin, Ways and Means; Kruz, Appropriations; Baker, Judiciary; Hamilton, Cities.

In the Assembly on Thursday the bill incorporating the Grant Monument Association of New York City, and permitting it to hold, exempt from taxation, real estate to the value of $1,000,000 was passed. A resolution authorizing Weed, Parsons & Co. to do the State printing pending the legal controversy over awarding the contract to the *Argus* Company, was passed by 70 to 48.

W. Bruns, Tammany Assemblyman, introduced on Monday night several bills amending the charter of this city. They provide for a Park Commission of two members, to be appointed in the first instance by the President of the Board of Aldermen, and afterward by the Mayor; transfer the duties of the Public Administrator to the Corporation Counsel; consolidate all the bureaus of the Public Works Department into three, etc.

Chauncey M. Depew was elected President of the Union League Club in this city on Thursday night, and the rest of the regular ticket was chosen without opposition. The following resolution was adopted by a nearly unanimous vote: "Resolved, That in the opinion of the Union League Club the public welfare demands that the compulsory coinage of silver dollars should be suspended by act of Congress, and that the Senators and Representatives from this State be respectfully requested to advocate such a measure."

Preparations are being made for the starting of the large furnaces at Riddlesburg, Pa., lately owned by the Kemble Coal and Iron Company, which have been out of blast for more than a year on account of the failure of the company.

A strike of 7,000 miners and coke workers in western Pennsylvania is threatened. They demand 10 per cent. advance in wages.

Mr. Schoenhof, American Consul at Tunstall, England, in an interview, expressed his belief that the decrease in the British exports of pottery was due to depression in the pottery trade in America as much as to the high tariffs. He added that the pottery market in America was glutted by purchases from England in 1883 previous to the raising of the tariff.

Collector Herbert Beecher has seized $45,000 worth of 'prepared' opium stored at Kassan Bay, Alaska, awaiting shipment to Portland, Oregon, and San Francisco.

Patrick Egan, President of the Irish National League, of America, will resign at its next meeting.

The Rev. Henry Norman Hudson, the Shaksperian scholar, died at his home in Cambridge, Mass., on Saturday, at the age of seventy-two. He was born in Vermont, and his education was obtained while struggling with poverty. In 1840 he was graduated from Middlebury College. He went South as a teacher, and delivered his first lectures on Shakspere at Huntsville, Ala. Four years later he went to Boston and lectured there and in other large cities. For three years he was editor of the *Churchman* in this city. His first edition of Shakspere appeared in 1851, and has been very popular. He did other critical work, especially on Wordsworth. For twenty years past he has lived at Cambridge, and has prepared many text-books.

The Rev. Benjamin Currey died on Saturday, near Peekskill, N. Y., at the age of eighty seven. He lived on the same farm in Westchester Coun-

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ty all his life. Early in life he became a Methodist preacher. For thirty years before the war he was active in the so-called underground railway for helping fugitive slaves. He was a fearless abolitionist, and when that question was settled became a temperance advocate.

Miss Bayard, eldest daughter of the Secretary of State, died suddenly on Saturday afternoon.

FOREIGN.

The new members of Parliament were sworn in on Wednesday. The Speaker permitted Mr. Bradlaugh to take the oath.

Queen Victoria on Monday sent her private secretary with a letter to Mr. Gladstone on the Irish question. The royal speech was drafted at the meeting of the Cabinet on Monday. Lord Randolph Churchill overcame the demand of a section of the Cabinet that the whole Coercion Act be renewed. The Government will rely upon a division of the Liberals to secure support of its Irish proposals. It is also asserted that the Government will at the earliest moment introduce a bill in Parliament making boycotting a felony, enlarging magistrates' powers of summary jurisdiction, and otherwise strengthening the Criminal Law. Parliament will be asked either to regulate or suppress the National League.

Deputations from the various branches of the Loyal and Patriotic Union waited on Lord Salisbury, the Premier, on Tuesday, and urged that a stern enforcement of the law accompany any concession granted to the Nationalists by the Government. The Loyalists were arrogant and dictatorial in their address, which so offended Lord Salisbury that he dismissed them with a very short speech, instead of the long political address which was expected. The Loyalists were chagrined. It is reported that Mr. Gladstone will deny that he ever proposed an Irish Parliament. Ulster Loyalists are indignant because he has refused to receive a deputation of their number.

The London *Times* on Saturday morning recognized that the Irish question must receive the immediate attention of the new Parliament. In a spirited leading article it urged the necessity of the Conservative party at once facing the issue. It says the Conservatives cannot shirk or postpone decisive action. If they attempt to remain in office without making a vigorous effort to grapple with the Irish difficulty, it will react in their prompt and unequivocal condemnation. Universal scorn will be their portion if they give their opponents a chance to overthrow them without staking their existence on a bold defence of the Union. Such a course would be worse than a blunder—it would be crime. The Government should not hesitate to challenge the verdict of the House of Commons on the question of home rule. It cannot be doubted that they would obtain an immense majority in favor of maintaining the integrity of the empire.

The *Daily News* says that the Government contemplates a *coup d'état* in Ireland, and that General Lord Wolseley will be appointed to command the military forces there; but this has been denied.

The Earl of Carnarvon, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, will soon resign. The Viceroyship will be left in commission, with Lord Ashbourne, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, presiding at the Castle.

The Dublin *United Ireland* attributes the intended resignation of the Earl of Carnarvon to his reluctance to abet wholesale evictions contemplated by the Government, which will render the Irish desperate. It implores the Cabinet to look before it leaps and not adopt coercive remedies, as the people will not submit tamely to being robbed of their homes.

Great distress prevails in many parts of Ireland, especially among the inhabitants of Achill and Eagle Island. Lord Carnarvon says that his sole reliance for affording relief to the starving people is the limited means at his disposal of sending the unfortunates to the workhouse. He, however, hopes that private contributions for the relief of the sufferers will enable the poor people to remain in their homes instead of being compelled to seek shelter in the already much overcrowded workhouses.

A condition of great alarm exists in Dublin commercial circles, owing to reasonable fears regarding an extensive boycotting system which, it is thought, will soon be inaugurated.

Monday's *Pall Mall Gazette* says there is no foundation whatever for the rumors now current that the Government will resign immediately on the reassembling of Parliament.

It is asserted on good authority that Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues have become reconciled; that Earls Spencer and Granville, the Earl of Derby, the Marquis of Hartington, and Sir William Vernon-Harcourt have all given their assent to a course of tactics suggested by Mr. Gladstone, and that the ex-Premier will take the first chance to overthrow the Conservative Government.

The Duke of Bedford writes to the *London Times* as follows: "There is a growing belief that Mr. Gladstone seeks to abandon the loyal Irish to the dominion of the disloyal. This obliges me to ask myself whether the party allegiance to which I have ever adhered is not strained to the breaking point. Many Liberals besides myself are eager for assurance to the contrary."

The Parnellites will join with English and Scotch Radicals in supporting an amendment to the address, protesting against evictions in Ireland and in the Highlands among the crofters.

Lord Salisbury has consented to recognize China as nominal suzerain over Burmah, on condition that the Pekin Government abandon its claim to tribute from Burmah, and open the Chinese frontier to British traders at 5 per cent. ad valorem duties, except on opium.

The British Minister at Lima has been instructed to recognize the existing Peruvian Government upheld by Caceres.

The Direct Cable Company's report shows that the receipts have decreased $150,000 during the past six months, and attributes the decrease to the reduction in the tariff and to competition.

Mr. Stead, editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, was released from prison on Monday.

Prince Bismarck has received despatches fully confirming the reported seizure of Samoa. The British Consul in Samoa telegraphs: "Commander Weber has driven the King from the seat of government. Weber hauled down the King's flag, a force from the *Albatross* assisting. The King was insulted. The British and American Consuls entered a solemn protest. Their presence alone prevented a massacre of the Germans. War is imminent. A report is current that Germany will annex Samoa."

Bismarck has officially assured Lord Salisbury that Germany will neither annex Samoa nor permanently interfere with the government of the islands.

A sensation has been created by the publication of the letter from Prince Bismarck to the Pope acknowledging the receipt of the decoration of the Order of Christ recently conferred on the German Chancellor by his Holiness. It says: "Your kind letter and decoration have greatly gratified the Emperor William and myself." It then goes on to state that the Pope's words that the Papacy means to practise the works of peace, first suggested to Prince Bismarck the idea of seeking the mediation of his Holiness in the Carolines question, and, in deference to his faith and confidence in the Pope's elevated views and impartiality, he selected the Pope as the arbiter of the dispute. Germany and Spain have no cause to complain of the terms of the protocol, and the effect of the mediation will be lasting. Prince Bismarck will not neglect chances to attest his lively gratitude, highest devotion, and deepest respect for his Holiness in the future.

Emperor William opened the Prussian Diet on Thursday. In his speech his Majesty said: "I am grateful for the love and fidelity of my people, and for the benevolent sympathy which has been extended to me from foreign countries. Our foreign relations are friendly, and support fully our belief that the peace of Europe is sure to continue."

Another German-American has been expelled from a Prussian town.

President Grévy has signed a decree granting amnesty to persons convicted of political offences since 1870, and reducing the sentences of many offenders against the common law.

President Grévy's message was sent to the French Chambers on Thursday. "A republic," he says, "is the form of government necessary for France, in view of the importance and divisions of its opponents." M. Le Royer has been reëlected President of the Senate by a majority of 24.

M. de Freycinet, the Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs, in the Chamber of Deputies on Saturday, said that the new Cabinet's colonial policy would be less adventurous than that of its recent predecessors. This statement was received with cheers.

M. de Lesseps has written to the Marseilles and other principal Chambers of Commerce, asking them to appoint delegates to accompany him to Panama, for which place he will start on January 28.

M. Taine has been forbidden by his doctors to continue mental labor.

Paul Jacques Aimé Baudry, the French artist, is dead at the age of fifty-seven. He was the son of an artisan. Success came to him rapidly. In 1850 he obtained the Grand Prix de Rome for his painting, "Zenobia Discovered on the Banks of the Araxes." In 1857, when he exhibited in the Salon "The Punishment of a Vestal," "Fortune and the Child," and "Leda," he had established his fame. Since then he has painted about 200 pictures.

Greece and Servia are negotiating for an alliance against Bulgaria.

Greece has declined to disarm. The Ministry threatened the King that they would resign unless he assented to an alliance with Servia and the maintenance of the army on a war footing.

A war fever is again raging in Servia. The Government at Belgrade has summoned the second ban, and has ordered another 20,000,000 of cartridges, eighteen batteries, and several machine guns. The Austrian Government is keeping a squadron in Greek waters. An improbable rumor was circulating in London on Tuesday that Russia is to occupy Bulgaria, Austria to march an army corps into Servia, and Great Britain to be asked to force Greece to lay down her arms. Bulgaria, however, has consented to disarm if Servia will. Turkey is also more tractable.

Amilcare Ponchielli, the composer, is dead, in his fifty-second year. Ponchielli is known in this country chiefly through his "Gioconda," one of the operas in which Nilsson appeared in the first season at the Metropolitan Opera-house. He was, next to Verdi and Boïto, the most gifted of contemporary Italian composers. He was born in 1831, near Cremona, and made his début as a dramatic composer in 1856 with "I Promessi Sposi." His first special success was won at Milan, in 1872, with his first opera. Thereupon he was engaged by the Scala management to write a ballet, "Le due Gemelle," which also had great success. In the same city his "Gioconda" had its first performance in 1876. His last opera, "Il Figluol Prodigo," was first sung in 1880, and was also very favorably received.

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THE TELEPHONE CASE.

THE view we should take of Secretary Lamar's decision to have the validity of the Bell telephone patent tested in the courts depends very largely upon our standpoint. If, as the Secretary seems to assume, and as a lawyer might naturally assume, the mind of the judge in such a case is to be *tabula rasa* on which the contending parties may freely write their arguments and impress their evidence, it is quite possible that the judge might see only that conflict of evidence on which the Secretary's conclusion is based. The result of the Star-route trials is an example of how a long and tedious argument about very simple facts may confuse rather than inform the mind. If a man could secure a fortune by making it appear debatable whether the Washington Monument might not talk, he would undoubtedly succeed. Hardly would the hearing be commenced before scores of people would be found who, in the still of night or the hum of day, had heard aerial voices proceeding from the Monument, which could not be accounted for without supposing that object to possess the power of speech. A perfectly unbiassed judge, with no prejudices of his own on the subject, listening attentively for two months to the evidence and arguments on both sides, would undoubtedly find the views very conflicting; unless, indeed, he should reach the decision that the talking power of the Monument had been fully established. But if we suppose the judge to possess beforehand some common-sense ideas of physical principles, and some knowledge of the world, then Mr. Lamar's conclusion is simply amazing, and we apprehend has surprised no one more than the plaintiffs themselves.

What gives his decision interest is not merely the historical and personal question of priority of invention, but the fact that the conclusion insures the success of one of the worst stock-jobbing schemes now before the public. The stock in trade of the companies on whose motion the suit is brought consists of a paper capital of several millions of dollars, and a few patents, of insignificant value, which they probably never intend to use. Before the courts, a suit instituted by and in the name of the United States is invested with such dignity that all injunctions against infringements of Bell's patent may remain undecided or inoperative until the case is finally settled. The result is that the companies have a fair chance of getting the use of Bell's invention for a period of perhaps three years—as long, in fact, as they are able to stave off a final decision. This prospect will enable the projectors to dispose of their paper capital on terms extremely remunerative to themselves. The grounds on which they are allowed to enjoy this advantage on the motion and at the expense of the Government are therefore worthy of very careful consideration. What we have to say on the subject is founded mainly upon the bill of complaint filed by the prosecution, supplemented by the well-known facts of the case.

Stripping the bill of all its verbiage, repetition, and incongruities, we find its gravamen to be contained in the following propositions:

1. That the examiner who passed upon the patent did not know that the invention was to be claimed as a speaking telephone, but supposed it to be only a method of harmonic multiplex telegraphy.

2. That a caveat having been filed by Elisha Gray on the same day that Bell made his application, the latter was allowed to see the caveat, and, in consequence, changed his application so as to cover ground which belonged to Gray.

3. That the speaking telephone was really the invention of Philip Reis, and was therefore public property before Bell's patent was issued.

We omit the claim that Bell fraudulently neglected to instruct the examiner in electrical and telephonic science, as one tending only to make the plaintiff's case appear ridiculous. We also omit the question of Gray's rights in the case, because the suit is not brought for Gray's benefit, but only for that of the public.

The first claim of the prosecution might seem at the first glance to have some foundation, from the fact that the word "telephone" had not come into general use, and that Bell therefore described his invention as a system of telegraphy. But a reading of his description shows that the speaking telephone was described so plainly and fully as to admit of no possibility of doubt or mistake. Even had the examiner misapprehended the invention, that alone would not invalidate the patent. Where would litigation end if the validity of every patent depended upon the state of mind of the Patent Office officials when they passed upon the inventions?

The second point is that Bell made use of his fraudulently acquired knowledge of Gray's caveat to amend his own description. If any evidence to prove this was adduced by the prosecution, we have not seen or heard of it. All necessity for looking up any such evidence is, however, done away with by the fact that no essential change was made by Bell in his description, and no alteration in or addition to his claim. The addition consists only in a fuller explanation of the difference between what he called undulatory and pulsatory currents, and added absolutely nothing to the invention. It is one of the many singular inconsistencies in the plaintiff's case that in some passages this very distinction, which they claim to have been borrowed from Gray, is denounced as a worthless pretence.

We now come to what is really the main point of the prosecution, that there was nothing essentially new in Bell's invention, and that his claim of an improvement on Reis's instrument, by substituting an undulatory for a pulsatory current, was a fraudulent pretence. Here we reach the question whether common sense and understanding of the subject are to be presupposed in the judicial mind. If we presuppose them, then the claim that the Reis telephone could speak is hardly more tenable, and is not supported by any more evidence, than the speaking power of the Washington Monument would be if the question of its existence were before a court. The Reis telephone sent electric pulsations through a wire; but these pulsations were all of one kind, and could produce at the end of the wire only a musical note of high or low pitch, like the sound of a tuning-fork. Such an apparatus never could talk, unless by the merest accident. Bell's invention consisted in giving the electrical undulations the same form as the sound waves emitted in human speech. The difference between the two inventions was neither more nor less than the difference between speech and noise. The validity of Bell's patent as against previous claims of Reis has been so often sustained by the courts that it can no longer be considered an open question.

On what grounds was an application granted when the reasons for it were so entirely untenable? We look in vain for an answer to this question in Mr. Lamar's communication. He enters into no discussion of the arguments, the law, or the evidence so far as this particular case is concerned, and indeed expressly excuses himself from forming or expressing any opinion upon the merits of the case. He does not even say what fraudulent act or what kind of collusion seems to him to have been possible, nor explain how ignorance on the part of the Patent Office could have made fraud on the part of a patentee. Granting all the facts claimed by the prosecution, except the incident of Gray's caveat, of which we have shown the utter groundlessness, no case would be made out except that the Commissioner of Patents blundered into issuing a patent for a well-known invention; a wrong which can be speedily corrected by ordinary legal proceedings. The amusing attempt to show that this supposed blunder was due to fraud on Bell's part is of a kind which would be laughed out of any court in the world; the fraud, consisting not only in neglecting to give the examiner scientific information, but in describing to the Commissioner of Patents a crude and worthless device in order to evade his vigilance, and, when the patent was granted, claiming that the device was a telephone. Mr. Cleveland's Administration has made no greater mistake than that of giving Government support to this ridiculous pretence.

THE SENATE AND THE REMOVALS.

IF the report of the Washington correspondent of the *Herald* is to be believed, the Republican Senators agreed, in their consultation on Friday, to subpœna the Cabinet officers to bring with them any papers they may have which will aid in the inquiries about removals which they are setting on foot, but admitted that if the Cabinet officers said the President had the papers, the Senate would be powerless as against him. This is comprehensible. What is not comprehensible is the following further report of the correspondent:

> "It was the general opinion in this consultation that, as the President had publicly and often professed a determination to retain in office during their regular terms all capable and proper men and to remove only improper men, these public engagements gave the Senate the right and duty to see to it that proper and capable men are not removed—that, in fact, the President has been and remains faithful to his engagements. If the President will say publicly that he has not found it expedient or possible to keep his promises in this regard, but has, in fact, removed Republicans because they were Republicans, and appointed in their places Democrats because they were Democrats, and for political reasons, in that case the Republican Senators will, they say, at once confirm every nomination he has made. But they say that their object is, and their determination is, to ascertain whether the President has lived up to his public promises in regard to the civil service, or whether—while still professing

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loudly—he has in practice violated these promises and become no better than a publican and a sinner. Republican Senators assert that he has so broken his public promises; and they say that it is important to the cause of public morality to show this."

According to this story, the Senate is, in doing its work in the matter of confirmation, to take its cue from the President himself. If he says he is trying to put fit men in office, and no others, it is going to overhaul all his nominations with much severity; but if he says that he is appointing men to office because they are Democrats simply, and without caring whether they are fit or not, then it is going to confirm every nomination he sends in without question. In other words, the Senators are not going to force the President to raise the standard in making selections for office one inch higher than he pleases. On the contrary, they encourage him, according to this story, to keep it as low as possible by assuring him that the lower he makes it, the more completely he disregards the interests of the public service in making his nominations, the easier will he find it to get them confirmed.

We are reluctant to believe that the Republican Senators have taken any such ground. A more degrading proposal to prostitute their office was probably never made by any portion, however small, of a respectable public body, than the foregoing would be. The Senators are bound to have a theory of their own about the proper mode of filling public offices. They have a duty in the matter as well as the President. The more openly he declares that he is filling them on partisan grounds, the more careful should they be to see that, nominating on such grounds, he is not disregarding the public interests. They are not charged with the duty of seeing that the President is consistent, or that his practice accords with his professions unless the professions show that the efficiency of the public service is his first concern. The Constitution did not bestow the power of confirmation on the Senate to be used in exposing the President's weakness or folly, but for the purpose of protecting the public against its consequences.

The Senate, in exercising its share in the appointing power, is bound, we take it, by every consideration of duty and policy, to assume that the President means to live up to the professions of his letter to the Civil-Service Reform League, and to examine his nominations from that standpoint. To demand from him his reasons for making removals they have plainly no right. He may give them if he pleases, but if he refuses, the Senators cannot complain. But it is their bounden duty to see that his nominees are fit for the places to which they are nominated. About this they can learn all they please through their constitutional powers of investigation. They can send for the man who has been removed, and find out how he did his work, and all he knows about the causes of his removal. They can send for the man nominated and learn all he has to say in support of his claims to the place, and they have a perfect right to be guided in acting on the nominations by the information thus acquired.

Moreover, there can be only one reason for their reluctance or failure to adopt this course—and that is their fear that, in setting up a high standard of Presidential selection, they would be dealing a death-blow to the system of Senatorial bargaining and log-rolling which is a large part of all the corruption there is in the Federal service. To insist on the President's treating public office as a public trust, is to bind the Senate to support him in so doing, and this for only too many Senators would be robbing their office of more than half its sweetness. But this is what the public now expect of it. They want the Senate to see as far as in it lies that the President lives up to his brave words. They will not object to his being plagued or harried by the Senate for this purpose, but they will strongly object to his being plagued or harried for any other. The time has long gone by when people would witness with equanimity a struggle between the Senators and the President over a division of the spoils. The Republicans cannot get back into power on that tack. They can only get back, in these days, by promising purer administration, and in such a way that the country will believe them.

FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION.

THE revelations of illiteracy in the South made by the last national census produced a profound impression upon the country. Government in the United States is wielded by millions of voters, and the success of such a system obviously depends upon the intelligence of these voters. Every ignorant ballot is a threat to the community, and government by suffrage, where a majority of those who enjoy the suffrage cannot read the ballots which they cast, violates the very theory upon which our whole system is based.

Yet it was shown in 1880 that in a number of Southern States nearly or quite half of the voters were illiterate. About three-fifths of South Carolina's population are negroes, and 78 per cent. of the male negroes were unable to write their own names, while 16 per cent. of the male whites were as badly off, making 52 per cent. of the whole number of both races. Mississippi, with nearly as large a proportion of negroes, was in almost as alarming a condition, 76 per cent. of her male negroes and nearly 12 per cent. of her male whites being unable to write, or about 47 per cent. of all her voters. Louisiana's population is almost equally divided between the two races; of her negro voters 80 per cent. and of her white voters 15 per cent., being 47 per cent of all of both colors, were illiterate. In Alabama the proportion reached 46 per cent., and in Georgia 45, while there was not a single State of the States in the "black belt" where the ratio of ignorant voters was not so large as to justify the most serious apprehensions. Of course such a state of things could not continue permanently without grave danger to the republic.

As they emerged from the destitution in which they were left by the war, and the only less disheartening period of corrupt carpet-bag rule, and consequent race hostility, the Southern States began to develop a public-school system. But the States were still poor, the mass of ignorance was vast, and progress was slow. It was plausibly urged that the exigency was so pressing that outside assistance must be furnished, and that the Federal Government ought to come to the rescue of the South. The assertion that such action would be unconstitutional was to be met by allowing all the States to share in the appropriations, while the expenditure of the largest share in the South was to be insured by making the amount allowed each State depend upon the number of illiterates. These arguments proved effectual to secure the passage by the Senate in the Forty-eighth Congress of what is known as the Blair bill, proposing to appropriate over $100,000,000 during a period of ten years for distribution among the States upon this basis. The bill went through the upper branch by a vote of 3 to 1, 20 Republicans and 13 Democrats supporting the measure and 9 Democrats and 2 Republicans opposing it; but it was never taken up in the House, and lapsed with the end of the session.

Senator Blair has reintroduced the bill, and another strong effort will be made to secure its enactment in the present Congress. The majority in its favor was so strong in the last Senate that there is little question of its passing the upper branch again, and its friends profess confidence that a majority can be secured for it in the House. Not only for its immediate consequences, but also, and much more, for its far-reaching bearing upon the relations of the Government to the States, the proposition is perhaps the most important which will come before the present Congress.

The plea in favor of the bill, as we have said, is plausible, but we believe that it is fallacious, because it takes a short-sighted view of the future. Illiteracy is a bad thing for a community, but it is not the worst thing. It is important for the South that its present ignorance should be dispelled as soon as possible, but that is not the most important thing for the South. The vital element of any success that is worth achieving in this world is self-reliance. The man who works his own way to an education may not acquire it as soon or get as good an education as one who receives it at the hands of charity, but it will be worth a great deal more to him, and he will be worth a great deal more to the community. The same principle holds as true for the State as for the individual. The American colonies developed into infinitely stronger commonwealths by reason of having to make their own way in the world than they ever could have become by the most fostering care of the mother country.

What was true a hundred years ago is true to-day. Illiteracy in the South is a terrible evil, and its removal will be a vast work. The burden must be a heavy one for the South to bear, and it would be temporarily a great relief to unload a share of it upon the broad shoulders of the general Government, but the education of its coming voters is the first duty of an American commonwealth. It is not the business of the general Government, and nothing could be more demoralizing to a State than the assumption of its own duty, in whole or in part, by the authorities at Washington. Undoubtedly more Southern voters will be able to read ten years hence if the Federal Government expends $100,000,000 upon Southern schools, but the South can much better afford to have fewer intelligent voters ten years hence than to have purchased their education at the expense of its own self-reliance and self-respect.

The truth is that the Southern States are

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already proving their capacity to grapple with this problem alone. Take for example South Carolina, which was in the most desperate condition. In 1874, under carpet-bag rule, there were only 110,416 pupils in her public schools. In 1884 the number had increased to 185,619. In Mississippi the number of pupils rose from 166,204 in 1876 to 266,996 in 1883. In Florida ten years increased the annual roll of scholars from 20,911 to 58,311. There is not a State where the gain has not been most gratifying. In most commonwealths the percentage of children of the school age who attend school already approaches that in the North—being, for instance, 65 per cent. in South Carolina and 68 per cent. in Maine—and the defects of the educational system are that the teachers are not so good and the terms not so long. But these defects can be overcome by the growing prosperity of the South, which will enable the States to raise more money for the schools. It must be remembered that the South has but just begun to realize the possibilities of her future under freedom. Every year will find her able to do more for education than the year before. At first the whites had to bear the expense of teaching both races, but already in Georgia the blacks pay into the Treasury most of what is spent upon colored schools.

Northern philanthropy may well contribute to the work of education in the South—the more Peabody and Slater funds, the better. But let not the nation make the fatal mistake of teaching the South to depend upon the Federal Government for the maintenance of its schools, and thus to lose that quality of self-reliance which no amount of education to short order can make up for. The best friends of the South are those Southerners who recognize the folly of this short-sighted policy. The North feels generously toward the South; it is in danger of yieldng hastily to its first impulse in this matter. The most effective opposition can be made by Southern men who base their opposition upon the right ground. Ex-Governor Chamberlain, of South Carolina, who himself stoutly opposes the Blair bill, not only for its unconstitutionality but also for its wrong principle, quotes the words of one such Southerner, an ex-slaveholder and ex-Confederate soldier, who puts the strongest argument against the Blair bill in this most forcible style:

"You know my deep interest in the public-school system. Hence I am opposed to national aid. You cannot *plaster* the South with this system. It is a growth, and its certain and healthy growth can only be secured by *each community providing for its own schools.* The Blair bill is simply, in another form, the old hallucination, 'fifty acres and a mule,' which has caused more briers and sassafras bushes to grow in Southern fields than all else!"

PROHIBITION VS. HIGH LICENSE.

THE renewed attempt to secure a high-license law from the New York Legislature renders peculiarly timely any fresh study of the operation of that system, in contrast with the workings of prohibition, in other parts of the country. A letter which was published in the *Evening Post* of Friday, portrayed the situation under prohibition in Kansas, while the *Christian Union* of last week presented a mass of valuable testimony regarding the state of things in Iowa, which, like Kansas, has a prohibitory law, and in Illinois, where a high-license system has been tried for some years. These are three representative States of the West, and the East ought to learn something from their experience.

The *Christian Union* recently addressed to its subscribers in Iowa and Illinois a circular letter asking what had been the effect of prohibition in the former State, and of high license in the latter, on the number and character of the saloons and the amount of drinking, drunkenness, and disorder. The replies from Iowa may be divided into two classes—those from the villages and small towns, and those from the large towns and cities. Correspondents living in the former places as a rule report that the prohibitory law is working well, but not a few of them confess that there never were any saloons in their neighborhoods before there was a prohibitory law. Public sentiment formerly forbade the liquor traffic, and naturally continues to do so now. On the other hand, the reports from large towns and cities almost uniformly represent that more liquor is sold and more men get drunk under prohibition than under the former license system. A few of the answers from such places are worth quoting:

Des Moines (population in 1880, 22,408).—Under license law 66 saloons; under prohibition 250; more sly drinking.

Dubuque (population, 22,254).—Last year 124 saloons; to-day City Marshal's list gives 143; city licenses read, "For keeping a saloon"; fully as much drinking.

Davenport (population, 21,831).—Increase from 20 to 30 per cent in number of saloons; new saloons of a worse character; amount of drinking increased; the law worse than a failure.

Burlington (population, 19,450). — Number of saloons more than double; character worse; drunkenness and disorder increased.

Council Bluffs (population, 18,063).—No effect from the law; under the so-called "Pop" ordinances—by which saloons are allowed to sell liquors not prohibited by law and not disturbed in selling what they please—licenses have been granted indiscriminately at low figures.

Keokuk (population, 12,117).—Liquor to-day sold as freely and openly as ever heretofore. The Marshal's report shows quarterly a great amount of drunkenness and disorder.

In short, a year and a half of experiment with the prohibitory law in Iowa conclusively proves that it cannot be enforced in cities and large towns, which are the very places where restrictions upon the liquor traffic are most imperatively demanded.

Kansas has fewer cities and a smaller foreign element than Iowa, so that the conditions were even more favorable to the Prohibitionists; yet the correspondent of the *Evening Post* shows that in the larger towns of Kansas the law is almost as much a farce as in similar places in Iowa. The provision by which a druggist may sell liquor to anybody, upon the customer's own certificate that he needs it "for medical purposes," is most demoralizing to druggists and public alike. Although liquor is not sold in most of the villages, this fact is not due to the law, but to the public sentiment, which, without the aid of a prohibitory statute, had previously forbidden the traffic, while in the cities there appears to be quite as much drunkenness as ever.

Contrast the condition of these two prohibitory States with that of Illinois, which has for some time had a high-license law, with a minimum fee of $500 for general liquor-selling, and a local-option clause that allows towns to increase the amount to any figure or prohibit the sale altogether. One-sixth of the whole population of Illinois is contained within the city limits of Chicago, and the *Christian Union's* correspondents from that city, with the exception of one opinionated Prohibitionist who "can see nothing but evil in any license system," agree that the high fee has reduced the number of saloons by several hundreds, the decrease being especially marked among those of the worst class, and that there is less drunkenness than formerly. If the investigation had been made a little later, official figures of the most convincing character might have been cited to support the impression of intelligent observers as to the workings of the system. The city Tax Collector has just issued a statement showing the number of saloon licenses issued for the last half dozen years, from which it appears that in 1882, before the high-license law was passed, there were 3,919 saloons, while in 1885 there were only 3,075 for a population probably a fifth larger, and the smaller number pay into the treasury $1,721,474, against only $195,490 for the larger number. Most of the smaller cities make similarly favorable reports, this from Rock Island being a fair sample: "Under low license, 84 saloons; under high license, 53; low groggeries rooted out; 30 per cent. less drunkenness and disorder."

More than one-third of the population of New York State is found in the cities of New York and Brooklyn, and the smaller municipalities bring up the proportion of the inhabitants who live in cities to nearly half of the whole number. Every intelligent and candid person knows that prohibition cannot be enforced in a single one of these cities. There is no way of preventing all sale of liquor, but it is possible and feasible to put limits upon the traffic, and to make it bear some share of the burdens which it brings upon the State. The one practicable way of reaching this result is to impose a high license, which not only diminishes the number of saloons, but makes every licensee from self-interest alert to prevent the breaking of the law, and the consequent injury to his own interests, by unlicensed sellers.

AMERICOMANIA IN ENGLISH POLITICS.

OXFORD, December 28, 1885.

AN American observer who should now revisit England after an absence of from twenty to twenty-five years could not fail to be struck with a singular change in English sentiment toward the institutions of his country. From 1860 to 1865 all the well-to-do classes and (what is of far more consequence) all the thinkers and writers of England looked unfavorably on the political and social condition of America. The Union was often held up for the instruction, for the warning, for the reproof of Englishmen. It was rarely, except by one small body of politicians, mentioned with admiration or respect. Democracy, we were told, had broken down, and American experience bore witness to its failure. The Union during the war of secession was described by Carlyle in his peculiar language as the "dirtiest chimney which has ever got set on fire." The prevailing impression of reasonable Whigs was that the political arrangements of the United States were at best cheap and nasty, and at worst

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nasty without being cheap. Even theorists so favorable to every form of freedom as was John Stuart Mill or Grote seemed more than half to doubt whether political liberty was not in America purchased at the price of intellectual servility or uniformity, and certainly dwelt at least as strongly on the supposed subjection of Americans to the tyranny of the majority as on their certain exemption from all the more palpable forms of despotism. The ideas of the day were summed up in the constantly expressed determination that the English Constitution should not be "Americanized," and the most telling of the taunts aimed at John Bright was that he wished to introduce into England the habits and institutions of the United States. No doubt Bright himself and the small and then unpopular party which he led eulogized transatlantic republicanism. Even his praise, however, was in one sense negative. What he admired was the absence of evils, or supposed evils, which he saw existing around him. I can still remember the fervent applause with which a meeting of sympathizers with the North hailed his description of a "country where they had no State Church, no hereditary peerage, no emperor, no king." But indomitable as was his bravery in forcing upon the minds of his countrymen the grandeur of the great republic, and keen as was his insight into the moral aspects of the life-and-death struggle between freedom and slavery, it may be doubted whether the specific institutions, the constitutional mechanism, so to speak, of the United States ever excited very keen interest in the mind of John Bright, or received from him very careful examination.

Be this as it may, Bright was in 1860 a prophet, preaching only to the people, who repelled rather than guided the sentiment of average well-to-do Englishmen. The contrast between the current opinions of 1885 and 1860 is as marked as it is striking. Radicalism, as represented by Mr. Chamberlain or Sir Charles Dilke, has ceased to occupy itself deeply with America. A nation whose habits and polity are based upon individual freedom, and whose Constitution guarantees respect for the sanctity of contracts, does not in any sense realize the ideals of statesmen who hope, rightly or not, to accomplish great things for the mass of the people by means of the intervention of the State. It is not for a moment, of course, to be denied that there are many things in American institutions—as, for example, the absence throughout the Union of any State Church, and the establishment of free schools—which command the sympathy of English Radicals. Yet a very slight knowledge of America shows that it is not the land in which Socialism can flourish, and it is not to be expected that men who uphold theories which are more or less Socialistic should look with the same partiality on the United States as was naturally displayed by reformers like Bright and Cobden, who, but for the non-recognition of free-trade doctrines, might consider the Union (when delivered from slavery) to have satisfied the aspirations of the Manchester school. If, however, the United States no longer command the exclusive affection of English Radicals, the institutions of the Union now excite something like hopeless admiration on the part of thoughtful Conservatives. Whoever doubts this should read with care Sir Henry Maine's 'Popular Government.' He should note, also, the letters on the English Constitution and home rule which appear in the *Times*. Any one who does this will perceive that the current of Conservative speculation has changed its direction, and he may rest well assured that politicians will sooner or later follow the guidance of thinkers. The plain truth is, that educated Englishmen are slowly learning that the American republic affords the best example of a conservative democracy; and now that England is becoming democratic, respectable Englishmen are beginning to consider whether the Constitution of the United States may not afford means by which, under new democratic forms, may be preserved the political conservatism dear and habitual to the governing classes of England.

A person skilful in drawing out antitheses might easily pen any number of sentences pointing out, in a more or less satirical form, the apparent contradiction between the Conservative sentiment of 1860 and the Conservative sentiment of 1885. But the general course of opinion is, under all apparent inconsistencies, never really self-contradictory. It is easy enough to harmonize the dislike of Americanism which prevailed twenty-five years ago with the Americomania of the present day. As long as it seemed possible to repel the inroads of democracy, English Conservatives naturally opposed all Americanization of the Constitution. Now that a democratic form of government is all but established in England, English Conservatives as naturally turn their eyes toward the United States, to see if they can borrow from the other side of the Atlantic devices for guiding democratic progress in an orderly and conservative direction. That this is the true explanation of the care and sympathy with which the American polity is at this moment investigated by English thinkers, is clear enough to any one who notes the points in your institutions which are singled out by English writers for admiration or respect. The President, they allege, occupies a position far more independent of temporary changes in public opinion than a Prime Minister; the Senate wields powers and exercises an influence never claimed or exerted by the House of Lords. Not the most trifling article in the Constitution of the United States can be changed without the most deliberate assent and the most lengthy consideration on the part of the American people; while it is at any rate conceivable that within a month or two, without any reference to the electors of Great Britain, the English Parliament might dissolve the union with Ireland or turn the United Kingdom into something like a Federal monarchy. The question, in fact, of the day is with many Englishmen rapidly becoming whether expiring Toryism may not, by alterations of the Constitution, be changed into Democratic Conservatism.

In another letter I may attempt to give some sort of answer to this inquiry. It is well, however, before considering how far any of the specific institutions of America can be transplanted to England, to weigh carefully a consideration which often apparently escapes the attention of those who propose reforms in our Constitution. The basis of the American polity is general acquiescence in the fundamental principle of democratic government, which, turn the matter as you will, is at bottom nothing more nor less than loyal submission to the will of the majority: the essence of a democracy is the rule of numbers. This rule may be, and, as every man of common sense must confess, often is, unenlightened, dull, and (occasionally) oppressive. But no one is really a democrat who does not hold that on the whole it is best in a given state or nation that the will of the majority should be supreme. Now any man who wishes to develop democratic conservatism must honestly acquiesce in democratic government, and it is open to question whether such acquiescence exists at present among educated Englishmen. Theorists who propose constitutional innovations appear often to aim, though unconsciously, at two different objects. At one moment they propose to check or counterbalance the power possessed under the present Constitution by the majority of the electors. This would certainly appear to be one, at least, of the ends proposed to themselves by the fanatics or enthusiasts for the representation of minorities. The end proposed may or may not be good, or may or may not be attainable. But it assuredly is an end which cannot be attained without violating the fundamental principle of democratic government. At another moment our innovators propose schemes—such, for example, as changes in the constitution of the House of Lords or as limitations on the absolute sovereignty of Parliament—of which the avowed aim is not to restrain the influence of the majority, but to insure that the will of the majority shall in reality be supreme. This end may or may not be good or attainable, but it is an end perfectly consistent with the fullest belief or acquiescence in the principles of popular government. Now one thing appears to be perfectly certain: the Constitution has become in form, at least, democratic. The majority of the electors are nominally, at any rate, sovereign. Of this power they will not suffer themselves to be deprived by the most artful combinations devised by the most ingenious of doctrinaires; or (if this be not admitted) it is at least certain that whoever attempts to diminish the power of the democracy must do so openly and by appealing to anti-democratic feelings, and a policy of which this is the object receives no countenance from the example, and can derive no benefit from the imitation, of America. It is, however, possible that the English electors may countenance changes of which the true and sole aim is to give full effect to the deliberate will of the people. In considering what changes are calculated to produce this result, instruction of all kinds may be derived from studying the Constitution of the United States. The theorist, however, or statesman who hopes to derive any practical benefit from the transference to England of the safeguards by which American statesmanship has surrounded the action of democratic government, must before all things honestly accept American belief in the rule of the majority. Anglomania has before this led Continental revolutionists to erect unstable and disastrous polities, which have displayed all the forms while omitting the essential spirit of the English Constitution. There is no small risk that Americomania may produce as untoward results in England. The authority of the President, the dignity of the Senate, the limited powers of the houses of Congress, the difficulties in the way of changing constitutional laws—these and other checks placed by the founders of the Union on the hasty action of the American people excite the admiration of conservative theorists. It is not so certain that they admire or share that respect for the popular voice which, for bad or for good, constitutes the essential spirit of American republicanism.

A. V. Dicey.

Correspondence.

REMOVAL OF INDIAN AGENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a sincere admirer of the fearless and uncompromising justice with which President Cleveland has publicly righted certain open wrongs perpetrated upon the Indian. I welcomed the President's inaugural declaration in respect to the Indian, and still believe that it is the expression of his honest purpose and genuine conviction. It is therefore in no partisan or fault-finding spirit that I desire to call attention to what is, in my judgment, a most grave and far-reaching error in the Indian policy of the present Administration. I refer to the sweeping changes which have been and are being made in the Indian service—the great number

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of them for purely political reasons. Apart from clerical and other changes in the Indian Office at Washington, about 60 per cent. of the entire number of Indian agents have been removed by the present Administration, and their places filled chiefly, if not wholly, by men of the opposite political party. If these changes meant no more than the minor changes in other branches of the civil service, however we might regret or attack the system which induced them, we could not, perhaps, properly make them a subject of especial complaint. But under our peculiar, and in one sense critical, relations with the Indian, these changes rest upon an entirely different footing. They are not merely an unfortunate incident of the "spoils system": they are a direct and cruel mistake in the management of Indian affairs—an obstacle placed by his guardian in the hard path of the Indian's advancement.

These removals stand alone among minor changes, because an efficient Indian agent cannot be replaced as easily as an efficient clerk or accountant. The post of agent is one of singular difficulty. To fill it successfully demands a rare combination of qualities. A good agent must have firmness, courage, patience, sympathy, justice, tact; a knowledge of farming, of accounts, of the especial needs and disposition of the particular Indians committed to him. On the agent may depend not merely the order and progress of his Indians, but often the very lives and property of the adjoining whites. The loss of a capable agent whose experience has peculiarly qualified him for his work, who has won the confidence of the Indians by his personal contact with them, is an unmixed calamity. To check the advance of a tribe in the critical stage of its progress, that some place-hunter may be provided for, is indefensible from every point of view.

Let me anticipate the possible objection that these removals of agents are made for sufficient cause by one word more. While I do not doubt that in some instances this may have been the case, the facts that have come directly to my notice have served to strengthen the reasonable probability that such a general change of agents was largely uncalled for. It is impossible for me here to give instances in detail, but I could cite cases, as that of Major Gasman at Crow Creek and Sioux Brulé agencies, Dakota, where a careful examination of the facts shows conclusively that the removal was for purely political reasons. In Major Gasman's case it is likely to be as unfortunate in its results as it was unnecessary. In another case the new superintendent of an Indian school (who has since filled the places under him with members of his immediate family) announces that he came through "the mutations of politics." Without assuming that President Cleveland is the direct cause of these changes, he is certainly responsible for them. He stands before the country pledged to reform the civil service, and to pursue a just and enlightened Indian policy; in his needless removals in the Indian service he has violated the spirit of his civil-service doctrines, and has sacrificed the good of the Indians to party spirit. This is not the treatment of the Indian that "the conscience of the American people demands." HENRY S. PANCOAST.

PHILADELPHIA.

LAND COMMISSIONER SPARKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow from the Northwest a word of praise for Land Commissioner Sparks? I do not undertake to defend or condemn his course, but I do wish to state that I am firmly convinced that any Land Commissioner who does his duty faithfully, or tries to do so, will raise the same howl that we hear against Commissioner Sparks. As I write, there are neighbors on every side of me owning Dakota lands obtained under the Preëmption Law, and that without having spent a month at any one time in Dakota. The usual method is to furnish funds to some "dead beat," who complies with the requirements of the law and then transfers the title to his patron.

There may be some innocent sufferers in Dakota at the present time, but it is hard to believe that bona-fide settlers are injured to any great extent by delay in issuing patents. The "dead beat" and his patron have doubtless raised the howl. Moreover, I have lived long enough among the honest, industrious farmers of the Northwest to know that, as a rule, they do not do the howling against a man who is trying to protect them. The people have ample reason to complain, not against Land Commissioner Sparks, but against the railway monopoly which both buys and carries our grain. This complaint becomes louder and louder every year. Let me commend this just cause to the papers and disinterested citizens of the Northwest who desire to protect the farmer. FARMER.

ROCHESTER, MINN., January 12, 1886.

AMERICAN "SOVEREIGNTY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent review of Dicey's 'Law of the English Constitution,' you allude to a speculative question, the location of sovereignty in the United States. Permit me to say with more emphasis, what you seem to hint, that, with us, there is no such thing as sovereignty. Waiving Austin's definition so far as he denies to it generally a legal limitation, and admitting that it may exist, as the term is used, even with such limitation, it is sufficient to say that a state or people are sovereign when they have no political superior, have full powers in respect to all subjects of governmental jurisdiction.

In our own country there is no such state, no such people. The United States as a body politic—that is, its aggregate people—have supreme jurisdiction as to certain subjects; as to others each State—that is, its several people—is above them. The States individually, that is, their several people, have supreme jurisdiction as to some subjects, while as to others the Federal state, that is, the aggregate people, is above them. These are legal facts of every-day cognizance. So, then, the Federal state and its people—that is, the aggregate people—and also each local State and its people, as to important subjects of governmental jurisdiction have their superior, and hence are not sovereign. If sovereignty ever existed, it has been divided, destroyed, no matter how; it no longer exists, it cannot exist with the irrevocable loss of its necessary powers.

But if this loss is not irrevocable, if either the aggregate people or the several peoples can change their relation, can assume or redistribute powers, then its sovereignty is not destroyed. A state which has endowed local subdivisions, as counties or cities, with political powers, does not thereby lose its sovereignty, for those powers may be resumed. But were it to part forever with jurisdiction over important classes of subjects, giving it to another body politic without power of recall, its sovereignty is as dead as though it were a conquered state. It may still be called supreme; but only *pro tanto*.

I am aware that a class of thinkers, assuming that sovereignty must exist somewhere in unity, locate it in the aggregate people of the several States, because, by their action, governmental powers may be redistributed or consolidated. I can see no difference between the aggregate people of the several States and the aggregate people of the United States; there is no aggregate people except as represented by the Federal authorities, and as so represented they have no such power—they can only initiate changes. The independent action of the people of each State can in no just sense be called the action of the aggregate people—it is not aggregate action of an aggregate body, but several actions of the several bodies.

An act of sovereignty must be sufficient of itself. If the aggregate people, as forming a body politic, a Federal state, could as such people so act as to change the distribution of powers, it might do to call them sovereign so far as sovereignty can exist among men; but it is absurd to say that the independent action of the people of each local State, or of an agreed portion of them, is the action of such aggregate people, although invited by them.

Every people—that is, every organized political society—must be represented by a governmental agency or there is no such people, no such society; and, whatever the mode of deciding a political question, it acts alone through such agency. But the theory supposes that the aggregate people of the several States act, not alone through the Federal agency, the only agency responsible to the Federal people, whether we call them people of the several States or of the United States, but also through the independent agency of the people of each State—that is, through agencies which do not represent them and over which they have no control.

I prefer to say that there can be no sovereignty in the Federal, the aggregate, people, and much less can it be predicated of the several peoples of each State, unless they have power at will to dissolve their Federal relations, which I deny. In my view, sovereignty, as defined by Mr. Austin and his followers, cannot exist among men; and, as defined above, it cannot exist in a Federal state like ours. P. B.

STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBIA, MO.

ONE EFFECT OF OUR PENSION SWINDLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few weeks ago I received by mail the enclosed printed circular and four copies of the enclosed card, addressed to me, as an attorney-at-law. The pen mark was drawn through the word "quietly" on each card, when received, just as you see it. The underscoring in red ink is mine.

That such matter should be sent openly to lawyers throughout the country is a painful indication of the effect upon public morals of reckless pension laws. And that it should be supposed that it could go unrebuked, causes one to blush for his calling, or rather for some who follow it.

The gentlemen who vouch for John Ambler Smith's honesty and trustworthiness ought to know to what use their testimonials are put.

Very truly yours,

N. L. ROBINSON.

CANTON, N. Y., January 16, 1886.

[The card and circular referred to by our correspondent are those of the "Hon." John Ambler Smith (as he is designated in the testimonials appended to his circular), a Washington attorney and prosecutor of all sorts of claims. The amended sentence on the card originally read, "Desertion mark quietly removed." Among his latest sponsors are Senators Blackburn, Hoar, Angus Cameron, Logan, and Allison, and of earlier date Congressmen Kelley, Hawley, Robeson, Proctor Knott, Beck etc.—ED. NATION.]

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AN INTERNATIONAL PARCELS POST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is announced that the German Director of Posts has invited our Government to send an officer of the Post-office Department to Germany, to study the advantages that would accrue to us by joining the International Parcels Post.

Those who have lived abroad appreciate the great convenience and advantage of the easy transmission of objects from one country to another. We have never been willing to recognize this, but have built a sort of wall between ourselves and Europe by refusing every facility of the sort. To get a small parcel from Europe one must pay, first, an absurdly heavy freight charge to the steamer company, then a remarkable bill to the agents on this side, items of storage and cartage that in proportion to the size and weight of the little parcel are utterly absurd. A $3.00 charge for "brokerage" follows, and then the duty. This last one expects to pay in any case, but would wish to avoid the others and the interminable delays.

Those who desire this reform should make their wishes heard, or, as abuses are always profitable to somebody, it will have but poor chances of being effected. L.

THE KEILEY BLUNDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The editorial article on "The Keiley Correspondence" in the *Nation* for December 17 is excellent so far as it goes, but it seems to me to leave untouched one very relevant point, which I note, however, without having seen the correspondence itself. I refer to the most important (and not less important because unalleged) reason why Austria could not receive Mr. Keiley. This reason was simply his previous rejection by Italy. The relations between these two Powers, whose frontiers are for so long a distance contiguous, are of a very strained character, notwithstanding the much-talked-of adhesion of Italy to the alliance of the two Emperors, and necessitate a constant exercise of the utmost diplomatic delicacy and tact. Nobody knows this better than the two Governments concerned; but, indeed, the fact is patent to every reader of current history, and ought to be well understood even in the State Department at Washington—our ever-blundering foreign office, into which, in general, only the crudest notions of foreign affairs appear to penetrate. On both sides of the Italo-Austrian border Irredentism still exists, and is continually breaking out in more or less violent eruptions despite the strong repressive measures of the authorities in Rome and Vienna. In the Italian cities the police do not yet succeed in preventing the scratching on the dead walls at night of anti-Austrian *sgraffiti* with the customary explanatory inscriptions, *Viva Oberdank* and *Abasso il colonello austriaco;* and only ten days ago, here in peaceful and moderate Florence, on the anniversary of Oberdank's execution (December 20), an effort to flood the streets and squares with a rabid Austrophobic manifesto was partially successful. As to the other side of the frontier, during some weeks spent the past summer in the Trentino, I heard of not a few arrests of enthusiastic *Italianissimi*, whose desire to sever their present allegiance to Austria had got the better of their prudence; while, at frequent intervals, the newspapers recount some new incident in the unceasing struggle between the Italian Common Council of Trieste and its Austrian superiors, or some new exhibition of Italian sentiment in the other Adriatic possessions of the empire.

Under these difficult circumstances the court of Vienna—unless it wishes to force a conflict with Italy—could assuredly not afford to receive as United States minister a man whose public utterances concerning Victor Emanuel and Italian unity had been so recently published in the journals of the Peninsula; for though the general good sense of the Italian press leads it to support the national Government in its efforts to restrain the inopportune and embarrassing Irredentist displays, yet it is not difficult to foresee that the reception of Mr. Keiley would have been treated by the soberest publicists as an utterly needless insult to their country. The consequences might, of course, have possibly been very serious to both the neighboring States. Count Kálnoky was certainly right in allowing this consideration to decide his action, although the dignity of the empire would not permit him to allege his real motive to a foreign Government. The Austrian Ministry would perhaps have done better to refrain from giving any reason whatever for the rejection of Mr. Keiley, resting its proceeding solely on the right inherent in every government to receive or to refuse to receive any particular diplomatic agent. On the other hand, no European foreign office would have been so obtuse as to ask for a reason, or so indelicate as to insist on the reception of a minister so evidently not a *persona grata*. In fact, no European Administration would have committed the original blunder of sending a man with such a history to Rome, and none but an American Administration would have made a bad matter infinitely worse by transferring the rejected Virginian to Vienna.

E.

Florence, December 30, 1885.

NATURALISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see that Mr. Brander Matthews objects to my use of the word "naturalism." I care little about the word if the *thing* be understood, but I may say that I used the word because Mr. Stillman had done so. When he speaks of art having "become to some extent naturalistic if not yet realistic," it is evident that by naturalistic he does not mean "ultra-realistic," but rather something between idealistic and realistic, and I tried to show what, in my view, this something is. As far as I know, Ruskin and other English writers use the word in the same sense, and I think we may consider the *English* sense of the word "naturalism" as fixed. If, however, Mr. Matthews or any one else will suggest a better word, I shall be glad to accept it. For my part I should be content to use the simple one, "art."

Kenyon Cox.

New York, January 12, 1886.

THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In noticing Mr. Ernest Ingersoll's handbook to the National Museum you remark that there is no reference to room, case, or object numbers. As this same comment is often made by visitors, it may be well to say that the rapid accession of material makes it necessary to so frequently alter the arrangement of the various departments as to preclude—at least for the present—the possibility of locating any given object.

A specimen here to-day may be there to-morrow, and it would require a daily edition of a guide-book to keep pace with the changes. During the past year the material on exhibition has increased so much that it has been necessary to wholly or partially change the arrangement of every hall of the Museum.

Very respectfully, L.

Washington, D. C., January 17, 1886.

"AT ALL" AND "AT-ALL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to call the attention of your correspondent "R. L." to a difference in meaning between "at all," pronounced as two words, and "at-all," pronounced as one?

To the question, "Did you shoot at all the targets?" the answer, "I did not shoot at all," implies that the respondent did shoot at some. The answer, "I did not shoot at-all," means that he took no part in the shooting. At least, that distinction would invariably be made in this part of the country.—I am, sir, etc., W. H. B.

Baltimore, January 15, 1886.

[We should suppose that the altered inflection would suffice to prevent ambiguity.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The spring announcements of Ticknor & Co., Boston, are very numerous. The following are, we believe, new to these columns: 'The Life and Genius of Goethe;' lectures at the Concord School of Philosophy for 1885, edited by F. B. Sanborn and W. T. Harris; 'Poets and Problems' (Tennyson, Ruskin, and Browning), by Geo. Willis Cooke; 'A Stroll with Keats,' by Frances Clifford Brown, illustrated; 'Indian Summer,' 'Italian Poets,' and 'A Sea Change; or, Love's Stowaway,' a comic opera, by W. D. Howells; 'Songs and Ballads of the Old Plantations,' by "Uncle Remus"; 'Every-Day Religion' and 'Light on the Hidden Way,' by the Rev. Jas. Freeman Clarke; a uniform set, in four volumes, of the works of Mary Clemmer, together with a memorial of her ('An American Woman's Life and Work') by Edmund Hudson; 'The Sphinx's Children and Other People's,' by Rose Terry Cooke; 'The Prelate,' a story of the American colony and native society in Rome, by Isaac Henderson; 'Christian Symbols and Stories of the Saints,' by Clara Erskine Clement and Katherine E. Conway; 'The Olden-Time Series,' gleanings from old Boston and Salem newspapers, by Henry M. Brooks; 'Edge-Tools of Speech,' by Maturin M. Ballou; 'John Bodewin's Testimony,' by Mary Hallock Foote; 'A Romantic Young Lady,' by Robert Grant; 'Two College Girls,' by Helen Dawes Brown; and a new and enlarged Concordance to the Bible, by the Rev. J. B. R. Walker.

Prof. Rudolph Gneist's 'History of the English Constitution,' translated by Philip A. Ashworth, will be shortly published in this country by G. P. Putnam's Sons in two volumes.

The *North American* Publishing Co. have in preparation 'Reminiscences of Abraham Lincoln, by Distinguished Men of his Time,' collected and edited by Allen Thorndike Rice, editor of the *North American Review*. The book will be a portrait gallery, since the several contributors are figured as well as the subject of their reminiscences. It will appear in April.

A "Rainbow Series" of new novels by American and foreign authors is announced by Cassell & Co. The title refers to the tinted covers, and not to the color sensation suggested by the two novels first on the list—'A Crimson Stain,' by Annie Bradshaw, and 'Morgan's Horror,' by Geo. Manville Fenn.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'Authorship of the Four Gospels,' as viewed by Judge William Marvin from a lawyer's standpoint.

G. P. Putnam's Sons give their imprint for the American market to Leslie Stephen's 'Life of Henry Fawcett,' which we have recently reviewed at length. It is noticeable that an affection of the eyes, before the terrible accident which

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destroyed them, makes the early portrait of Fawcett in this volume seem almost blinder than the very latest.

Henfrey's valuable 'Guide to the Study of English Coins from the Conquest to the Present Time,' which has been for some years out of print, has been republished in Bohn's Reference Library (Scribner & Welford). The original arrangement has not been altered, but the form of the volume is handier, the descriptions of the pieces have been revised, and an historical introduction prefixed by the editor, Mr. C. F. Keary, and the work will no doubt continue to be a standard authority for collectors.

Unwin's Christmas Annual (New York: Appletons), which prolongs the holidays on this side, is exceptionally attractive both from its list of contributors and the skill with which its editor, Mr. Henry Norman, has bound the stories together by lively and well-subordinated conversational passages. The scene is the deck of the *Batavia*, where the accident which gives a happy name to the collection—'The Broken Shaft'—has unlocked the lips of the story-tellers at the command of the "Eminent Tragedian," who, with his "Beatrice," will be readily recognized, to while away the time. Ghosts, which by some whimsicality of the imagination have a prescriptive right to be with us at the blessed season, notwithstanding Marcellus's belief, appear in several disguises, from the crude materialism of Mr. Crawford's blood-curdling and bone-breaking nightmare to the elf-like presence of the "Marjorie" whom Mr. Anstey has made the centre of a charming child's story. Mr. Stevenson, Mr. Pollock, and especially Mr. Archer contribute work which approaches French perfection in this literary form; Mr. Hopkins treats us to the old-fashioned British humor which seems so bumpkinish in comparison with the finer touch of these latter days; and lastly Mr. Norman winds up with a tale not inferior to those of the older hands, though we cannot help thinking that the very startling incident out of which it springs obscures the sweetness and perfect tone of the love-passages which are the better part of it.

The 'Standard Indexed Atlas' of the United States published in this city by A. A. Grant for business uses has an obvious advantage in its size, which is folio, over its predecessors. By simple typographical devices and by coloring, one distinguishes readily the counties of any given State; the towns as post-offices or not, and as money-order post-offices or not; the railroads, and the express line which has the privilege of each. The indexes are purposely made fuller than the maps, and contain much compact information as to population, banking facilities, place on the map, and accessibility by rail. Canada is not, as in some other business atlases, included in this one.

The twenty-ninth volume of *Harper's Weekly* reflects, as usual, the events which have most deeply interested our public, from the Sudan expedition to the Riel rebellion, from the first "Walküre" to the first "Mikado" performance, from the trial trip of the *Dolphin* to the races of the *Puritan* and *Genesta*, from the revision of the Old Testament to the revision of our National Administration. The array of portraits certainly does not diminish in numbers or importance, the rotation of office-holders (English and American) furnishing a great many, and the world's distinguished dead not a few besides. "Process" work is still but little relied upon except for facsimiles of pen-drawings, and to nothing like the extent to which foreign illustrated journals make use of it. One or two supplements in this volume have a single tint, but general color-printing is yet to be ventured upon by the publishers.

In *Harper's Bazar*, which has ended its eighteenth volume, the full-page or double-page cuts have less to do with current affairs, though the Mississippi floods and the New Orleans Exhibition are glanced at, and such a social event as the yacht race could not be overlooked, nor could the death of Grant. The portraits are generally of women, though Ranke and Shaftesbury are admitted. The pictorial facetiæ of the last page of the *Bazar* still show the extraordinary fondness of our women for humorous views of our colored fellow-citizens.

The latest Bulletin of the Library Company of Philadelphia has a very valuable appendix, "Regimental Histories," by George Maurice Abbot, being Part I. of Contributions toward a Bibliography of the Civil War in the United States. Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and New York rank first in number of works (measured by pages occupied in the appendix), but Massachusetts by far leads all the rest in point of completeness. The 58th Massachusetts Infantry is the highest number here recorded, and there is something relating to Nos. 1, 2, 4–6, 9–13, 15–17, 19–21, 24, 25, 27, 29, 32–39, 41, 43–45, 49, 51, 52, 55, 58—say two-thirds of the whole. The list includes Federal and Confederate States. Most of the latter are very deficient in histories or memoirs, but Virginia makes a good showing.

We have received from the Secretary of the Grolier Club of this city its ornamental 'Transactions' for the first year and a half of its existence (January, 1884–July, 1885). It contains a brief sketch of Grolier, an account of the origin of the Club and its doings, lists of the objects shown at its exhibitions of etchings, of illuminated manuscripts, and of illustrations for books, and abstracts of the technical papers relating to the bookmaking arts read by various members. The publications of this Club have been notable for their beauty, and have been eagerly taken up. It is stated that books once belonging to Grolier's collection are to be found in the Astor Library and the library of Columbia College, as well as in private libraries in New York.

The Bewick Club of Newcastle-on-Tyne, founded in 1876 as a sort of life school by the artists of that locality, has enlarged its scope with its new premises, which it entered into on November 4, 1885. We learn from a pamphlet containing the address delivered on that occasion by Dr. Robert Spence Watson, that the Club now aims to embrace in its organization all who take an interest in art, and to promote social intercourse and intellectual recreation "by artistic and musical conversazioni, by sketching excursions, and by classes for the study of the higher branches of art." These classes are open to both sexes.

The State of Virginia is having copies made of some hitherto unknown documents in the British Museum to which Dr. Edward Eggleston directed its attention. Such are the brief original draft of the 'History of the Dividing Line,' by William Byrd—the colonial classic—and fourteen documents of the highest importance relating to Bacon's Rebellion. The State is also, at Doctor Eggleston's suggestion, having copies made of some important papers, as yet very little known, in the Public Record Office. It is safe to say that the real history of Virginia in the seventeenth century has never been written. Many of the most valuable papers relating to colonial history are in private collections in England. They do not, we believe, come within the range of Mr. B. F. Stevens's explorations.

In 1854 Dr. J. G. Kohl, the well-known German geographer, was employed by the United States Government to prepare, for the purposes of the Coast Survey, a history of the discovery and exploration of the Pacific coast. He later undertook a similar task for the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic coast. These two memoirs, owing to official negligence or misunderstanding, have ever since remained in manuscript in the Coast Survey Office. Doctor Kohl always alleged that the Government did not keep faith with him in regard to their publication. The authorities have now bestirred themselves to the extent of having the historical portions of the memoirs published as an appendix to the Coast Survey report for 1884. In the light of more recent knowledge they are necessarily deficient. The later and better results of Doctor Kohl's researches as regards the Atlantic coast are set forth in his 'History of the Discovery of Maine,' published by the Maine Historical Society as the first volume of the second series of its Collections. A collection of hand copies of early maps relating to America, prepared by Doctor Kohl, is preserved in the State Department at Washington. A descriptive catalogue of these maps by Mr. Justin Winsor is in course of publication in the Harvard University Bulletin.

The Bressa Prize (12,000 francs) of the Turin Academy of Sciences has been conferred upon Professor Pasquale Villari, President of the Faculty of Philosophy and Philology in the Istituto di Studi Superiori of Florence, for his exhaustive biography of Machiavelli. The prize is given once in four years for great distinction either in science or letters. It was bestowed a few years back upon Darwin.

With No. 1 of its 37th volume that excellent weekly the *Revue Politique et Littéraire* of Paris takes on, in larger letters, the more convenient name, *Revue Bleue*, in harmony with the familiar color of its covers.

By a singular irony the followers of M. Le Play, whose panacea for the evils of modern society was the rehabilitation of the family, have had a family quarrel. The association which published the *Réforme Sociale* has dissolved, and one wing has gone off and founded the *Science Sociale*, "d'après la méthode de F. Le Play," as they state, wishing to retain for themselves the old trade-mark. Apparently, however, the weight of the movement as of the organization remains with those who were opposed to the dissolution; and it is announced that the Société d'Économie Sociale, with its Unions de la Paix Sociale, does not recognize the new organ, but will continue the *Réforme Sociale* under the simple title of *Bulletin* of the Society aforesaid. So far as our light goes, we are prepared to recommend the *Bulletin* as the true and lawful heir of its predecessor. It is a very earnest and valuable publication, and must have a widespread influence for good. The office of the Bulletin is at 174 Boulevard Saint-Germain.

Another useful French institution is the Paris Société Historique et Cercle Saint-Simon, which is housed at No. 2 rue St.-Simon. Its *Bulletin* is now in its third year. The second number contains, if we mistake not, an innovation in the shape of illustrations (very clever ones), accompanying a lecture on the Japanese Theatre by MM. Émile Guimet and Félix Régamey. Curious is the germ of the Western footlights—a candle at the end of a rod managed by a person behind the wings, who thus illuminates the actor's face. The Club has been making an interesting experiment of listening to popular melodies drawn from all parts of France, expressly harmonized, and sung by various gentlemen and one lady, Mlle. Mercédès. This proved very successful, and was followed by a Mother Goose banquet (*Ma Mère l'Oye*).

Gerhard von Amyntor has a jeremiad in the *Magazin für die Literatur des In- und Auslandes* on the decline of popular interest in Germany in the products of native literary talent. Books, whether literary or scientific, which reach a circulation of 100,000 can, he says, be counted on the fingers without including them all. Only Bodenstedt's 'Mirza Schaffy' and Scheffel's 'Trompeter' have surpassed that number, while

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other specially popular works, such as the romances of Ebers, Freytag's 'Ahnen,' the epic poems of Wolff, and Stinde's 'Familie Buchholz,' have, in spite of ingenious advertising, not reached a third of that number. At the same time, the markets are flooded with translations of foreign books, especially of the French school of naturalism. The writing of fiction is all done by women for women. The writer seriously suggests that native talent should be encouraged by boycotting foreign literature, even as the French boycott German music in their refusal to hear "Lohengrin." Perhaps a simpler method would be for German authors to study French simplicity of style, literary perspective, and the art of eliminating irrelevant facts and episodic padding.

By an error for which we cannot now account, we included Prof. Rudolph Gneist among the dead of 1885.

In the necrology of the present year we regret to record the name of Sheldon Amos, formerly Professor of Jurisprudence at University College, London, and author of 'A Systematic View of the Science of Jurisprudence,' 1872; 'The Science of Law,' 1874; and numerous other works, legal and political. In 1881 he went to Egypt in the legal service of the British Government, and became a regular correspondent of the *Nation* at Alexandria until the summer of 1884, in which year, having been appointed a judge of the new native Court of Appeal at Cairo, he took up his residence in that city.

—The resignation of Gen. John Eaton from the National Bureau of Education at Washington to assume the presidency of Marietta College, Ohio, excites widespread regret among teachers and not a little anxiety as to the future of the Bureau. While there has been no lack of criticism upon the work of the Bureau, no one has questioned the integrity, devotion, and general efficiency of the retiring Commissioner. He has gathered and distributed the statistics of education of all grades and kinds throughout the country in convenient form for handy reference, and incited and issued many monographs and special reports, often by eminent teachers outside his own corps of co-workers, afforded help to thousands of inquirers, indexed nearly 30,000 titles of books and pamphlets and important essays on educational topics, gathered a large library and educational museum, and has brought the influence of the department to bear in stimulating educational interest in many ways and sections of the country—all in a manner which has tended, as its best result, to develop in many minds besides his own a still higher ideal than has yet been realized of what the Bureau could and now ought to do. The difficulties to be contended with have been increasingly numerous and great. The building in which the Bureau is lodged is mean, overcrowded, and quite outgrown; the appropriations and the salaries inadequate, from that of the Commissioner down to the porter; and the long delay of all reports in the Government Printing Office (sometimes more than a year, we believe, even the fourteenth report for 1883-4 not being issued yet, though its successor is nearly ready) effectually takes the bloom of freshness from all its documents, and causes discontent, often directed against the Bureau itself, which is in no wise responsible for the long delays. All this is utterly unworthy the present high and advancing condition of education in our country, and the courage with which General Eaton has stuck to his post and always done his best in the face of such and other difficulties, cannot be too highly commended.

—Although the voice of provincial ignorance and philistinism is still heard in the land, glorifying our institutions as too perfect to learn from "abroad," all intelligent men, and especially all the bright young men, now entering the profession of teaching, realize well that nothing will now tend more to lift the whole tone of educational work to a higher level than a comprehensive survey of what has been done and is now doing in this field. We believe that the first and chief requisite of the next head of the Bureau—so long, at least, as it remains mainly a bureau of information as it is at present—should be a good knowledge of foreign tongues and of foreign educational institutions of high and low degree; and that this qualification should be second only to wide knowledge and keen sympathy with all that is good in our own land, and administrative and business tact. This will carry with it a pervading sense that the interests of the higher and lower education should be bound together in an organic unity as they are not in any portion of our land at present—a fact which constitutes one of the most deep-seated defects of our whole national system. The qualification in question will imply also, it may be hoped, that the incumbent is not a doctrinaire of any of the many types among us; nor a political worker, for in few positions are the qualities which enable men to make a strong push for a place less often associated with those which would insure real success in office. Judging from the petitions, letters, etc., now in circulation in the interests of various candidates, the Government is not likely to be embarrassed from lack of applicants from whom to select. Its decision will be a crucial test of its wisdom and discrimination. The importance of the office is out of all proportion to its rank and pay. We are full of the conviction that there are few directions in which the Department of the Interior could achieve a deeper and more lasting good than by giving special attention to the pending appointment, if not indeed to the whole function of the Bureau of Education. That this will be done we have reason to hope.

—Two recent publications of the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction are of interest to librarians. One is the first of a series bearing the general title of 'Indici e Cataloghi,' the special title of this volume being 'Pubblicazioni Periodiche, 1884.' It indicates, in a single alphabet, all the periodicals and proceedings and transactions of learned bodies regularly received by the 26 principal public libraries of Italy in 1884, with very full information in regard to each publication, such as the names of its editors, the number of volumes previously issued, the completeness or incompleteness of the set belonging to the library, etc. This alphabetical list (pp. 1-192) is followed by various indexes (pp. 194-301), including a subject-index, an index of academies and societies, and a topographical index, and these by several statistical tables (pp. 305-313). The total number of serial works cited is 1,890. Of these 39 are American, of which only one, the *American Journal of Mathematics* (Baltimore), reaches as many as 5 libraries. The preface to this well-arranged and well-printed volume makes appreciative mention of Poole's 'Index,' accompanied by the announcement that the National Library of Florence will soon begin the issue of a half-yearly analytical index of all current Italian periodicals.

—The other official work referred to is a 'Regolamento per le Biblioteche Pubbliche Governative,' being a code of regulations for all the Italian libraries under the control of the central Government, approved by royal decree October 28, 1885, and henceforth in force. The first title enumerates the Government libraries, which embrace 16 independent book collections (*biblioteche autonome*), and all libraries attached to museums, galleries, universities, special or technical and secondary schools. Comparatively few libraries of importance in Italy, other than private ones, are thus excluded from the list, the exceptions being some of the public collections belonging to municipalities or provinces. One section makes all special collections appertaining to the cabinets, laboratories and museums of a university parts of the general university library. Titles ii to vi relate respectively to "Internal Arrangement"—provisions for registers of accessions, shelf-lists, catalogues, reports and the like, making imperative the compilation of subject catalogues, and special indexes of incunabula and book rarities, music, maps and charts, engravings, autographs, miniatures, palimpsests, artistic bindings, etc., and the compilation of statistics in regard to the library's use; "Government and Acquisitions"—establishing a council of direction, with the chief librarian at its head, for each library; "Employees"—their classification and functions; "Appointments, Promotions, and Salaries"—all places to be filled, as heretofore, by competitive examination, the candidates having previously passed through special courses of study; "Public Use of the Libraries"—defining the privileges and obligations of readers. The volume closes (pp. 59-112) with models of the necessary blanks, and an ample index. It is interesting to note that among the blank forms is one enabling a reader in any library to obtain books from any other, so that a scholar sojourning or residing for instance at Florence may have access to any desired book contained in the public libraries of Palermo, Venice, or Milan. Though issued by the ministry, both these publications are in great part the work of that thoroughly able *bibliothecist*, if one may coin the word, Dr. Desiderio Chilovi, the lately appointed prefect of the Florentine National Library, as the old Magliabechiana-Palatina is now officially styled. Doctor Chilovi is rapidly introducing into Italy the novel bibliothecal methods which have already proved of such great public utility in the larger American book collections.

—Since Limborch in 1692 printed the book of sentences of the Inquisition of Toulouse from 1307 to 1323, no work has appeared which throws so much light on the character and operations of the Holy Office of the Middle Ages as the 'Practica Inquisitionis Heretice Pravitatis' of Bernard Gui (Guidonis), which has just seen the light under the auspices of Prof. Douais, of Toulouse (Paris: A. Picard, 1886). The writer or compiler of the 'Practica' was one of the most learned and indefatigable Dominicans of the age, a voluminous author on historical and controversial subjects, and himself the inquisitor whose register of sentences was published by Limborch. His work, intended for the guidance of less experienced colleagues, contains within its 350 quarto pages everything which an inquisitor of the time would seem to need—formulas, instructions, papal decrees, and masses of material, heaped together, it must be confessed, without much regard to scientific arrangement, but invaluable as illustrating the every-day labors of the dreaded tribunal. Such a work was worthy of the most conscientious editing. It is not likely to be again reprinted, and scholars had a right to ask that any one who undertook it should put it forth in the most perfect form and with all the aids which would render it complete and intelligible. Unfortunately, M. Douais has not thus understood his duty. He has contented himself with collating the two MSS. of Toulouse, without examining those in Paris and London, and ignorant that others exist in Italy. Consequently there are omissions much to be regretted. The task of editorship has been reduced to a minimum. A simple examination of the sources from whence Bernard Gui drew his materials would

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have added greatly to the value of the work, and illustrations of the usages and processes described in its pages would have rendered intelligible much which can be comprehended only by the special student. Still, we doubt whether, with the best intentions, M. Douais could have added real value to the work. In his preface (p. viii) he cites a note in the MS. as showing that the 'Practica' was used as a guide and a manual by the Toulousain inquisitors, and at the bottom of the page prints the note, which says nothing of the kind. Such incredible carelessness reconciles us to the absence of further annotations, but does not diminish our regret that the task had not fallen into more competent hands.

—Mr. Walter Federau Nokes grapples for the third time with the difficulties of Corneillian verse in his translation of "Polyeuctus, the Christian Martyr" (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof). As in his previous translations in blank verse of Corneille's "Cid" and "Horace," he invites direct comparison with the original by printing the French text on the opposite page. Few translations not intended for "ponies" could stand this test. Mr. Nokes has at least not shirked any of the hard places, as the *traduttori traditori* often do. Really his task was one which it required courage even to undertake after the pitiful efforts of Ozell and others in the last century "to do into English" some of the classic French plays. What can be more remote from an English or even a French-speaking person of to-day than the conventional turns of the Alexandrines which charmed the ears of the subjects of Louis XIV. and of Louis XV.? The *feux* and *flammes* and *vœux* and *chers objets* are as remote from us as the *rabats* and lace *canons* worn by the *grands seigneurs* who delighted to hear these expressions. This and other considerations, self-evident to any one familiar with French versification, make it hard to find fault with the rendering presented by Mr. Nokes. His blank verse is not easy reading. Average French scholars will be able to read the original with as much facility as his translation, full of all the conventional tricks of a certain kind of English blank verse. Archaic words and forced epithets are common, and he too often has recourse to such forms as *was't*, *'twas*, *'twere*. But the version is an honest attempt to be literal, to omit nothing. As such it will remain a curiosity not without merit.

SCHLIEMANN'S TIRYNS.—I.

Tiryns. The Prehistoric Palace of the Kings of Tiryns: The Results of the Latest Excavations. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, Hon. D.C.L., Oxon., etc. The Preface by Prof. F. Adler, and contributions by Dr. Wm. Dörpfeld. With 188 woodcuts, 24 plates in chromo-lithography, 1 map, and 4 plans. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885. Pp. lxiv, 385.

EVERY traveller who enters the land of Argos at Nauplia first turns his steps to a low, oblong hill in the southeast corner of the plain, on which stands the wall of Tiryns; the most venerable of Cyclopean fortresses. Here, on the very threshold of the land, he finds walls on which Greeks of the age of Pericles once gazed in astonishment, marvelling at their massive architecture and their hoary antiquity; and he feels the presence of the heroic age of Greece. Even Homer, who would hardly have noticed a common fortification, celebrates Tiryns as "a city of walls." Pausanias, who visited Argolis about 170 A. D., says that the walls of Tiryns are as wonderful as the pyramids of Egypt, adding, in a tone of absurd exaggeration, that a yoke of mules could not move even the smallest of the unwrought stones of which they are built. The foundation of Tiryns, like that of its neighbor Mycenæ, is buried in fable. Tradition makes Tiryns the older of the two, the original Cyclopean fortress. About 1400 B. C. (according to the mythical chronology), two great-grandsons of the Egyptian Danaus, the twins Acrisius and Prœtus, appear as rival claimants of the land of Argos. According to the most common account, Prœtus is expelled by his brother, goes to Lycia, marries the King's daughter there, the famous Anteia or Sthenebœa, and returns with an armed force of Lycians, who establish him at Tiryns, while Acrisius rules at Argos. Prœtus also brought from Lycia, according to Strabo, seven wonderful builders, the Cyclopes, who built the walls of Tiryns for him, and afterward those of Mycenæ for Perseus, the grandson of Acrisius. To this prosaic level had the divine Cyclopes descended from the Titanic height on which they stand in Hesiod, as children of Heaven and Earth! Tiryns was part of the inheritance of Amphitryon, the earthly father of Heracles; but before this hero's birth Amphitryon and Alcmene had withdrawn into exile at Thebes. Heracles himself came to Tiryns, by command of the Delphic oracle, to abide there twelve years in the service of his kinsman Eurystheus, who then reigned at Mycenæ, and to perform the famous labors for which he was to be made an immortal. One account, however, makes Heracles a native of Tiryns.

The glory of Tiryns, like that of Mycenæ, lies, therefore, in the distant mythical past. We know it chiefly as the home of divine heroes, and rarely indeed do we hear of a mere man walking its streets. Both of these famous cities emerge into the light of history only to disappear from our sight. With the Dorian invasion of Peloponnesus all pretensions of either to independent sovereignty must have ended. The Dorian kings of the Temenid dynasty made Argos their seat of government, and after their accession we find hardly any mention of either Tiryns or Mycenæ until the Persian wars and the subsequent destruction of both cities by Argos. The question whether the real conquest of these ancient cities by Argos took place after the Persian wars or many centuries earlier (see 'Tiryns,' pp. 35–46), becomes unimportant when we think how little of the former glory of either could have remained, under any circumstances, to be extinguished at this later period. We can easily believe that they existed until 468 B. C. as small towns, subject to Argos, but occasionally provoking her by their independent pride; and we are compelled to believe that they sent troops to Platæa in 479 B. C.; when we read their names still legibly inscribed on the bronze serpent-coil in the Hippodrome of Constantinople, which was once erected at Delphi to commemorate the great victory. At all events, both cities disappear from history after 468 B. C., and we have the testimony of Pausanias that six centuries later Tiryns was, like Babylon, "nothing but a wall."

After the brilliant success which crowned Dr. Schliemann's labors at Mycenæ, it was not to be expected that he would leave the hill of Tiryns long unexplored. The deep trench which he dug in 1876 into the heart of the upper citadel entered an open court in which there were fortunately no walls preserved; otherwise, serious damage might have been done. In 1884 and 1885 Dr. Schliemann undertook the exploration of the upper citadel of Tiryns, with the constant help of Dr. William Dörpfeld, whose aid in the latest excavations at Troy is so conspicuous in 'Troja.' The results are given in the volume before us. Dr. Schliemann has written chapters i.—iv. (pp. 1—176), giving an account of the excavations of 1884, the topography and history of Tiryns, and an elaborate description (with 111 illustrations) of the objects of terracotta, stone, etc., found in the ruins. Dr. Dörpfeld has written chapter v., describing the walls and buildings so far as they were explored in 1884; and nearly the whole of chapter vi., which describes the excavations of 1885, and supplements and corrects the accounts of chapter v. in many important particulars. A preface (pp. v.—liii.) has been contributed by Professor F. Adler, of Berlin, containing interesting discussions of many architectural questions suggested by the buildings of Mycenæ, Tiryns, and Hissarlik.

The excavations of 1884 were confined chiefly to the space within the walls of the upper citadel, and disclosed little regarding the great Cyclopean fortress itself. But the next year's work dealt chiefly with the outer walls, and made some unexpected additions to our knowledge of these famous structures. By a thorough removal of débris from the outside the wall of the upper citadel was laid bare to its foundations. A comparison of the large plan made in 1885 (No. 125, opposite p. 309) with the outline of the wall given in Steffen's *Karten von Mykenai* (1884) shows many angles and irregularities which had not been suspected before. The first excavations showed that the supposed main entrance at the southeast corner, through which almost every traveller now enters the citadel by a broad, easy road over the buried wall, was really no entrance at all, there being no break whatever in the line of the outside wall at this corner. There was only one carriageway leading to the upper citadel. This ascended gradually from the north along the outside of the eastern wall, then passed through the wall to the inside just south of the great tower, and ascended again between the outer wall and a strong inner wall to the great open court in the southeast corner of the citadel. The chief entrance for people on foot led from the strange semicircular projection of the western wall, through which a little gate opened upon a long flight of steps, of which 65 still remain, leading to the north end of the upper citadel. At the southwest corner of the wall stands a tower, about 63 feet long and 27 feet wide, resting on a natural projection of the rock. This contains two rooms without doors, separated by a solid wall, which Dörpfeld supposes to have been cisterns. A similar cistern is found at the southeast corner.

Every visitor at Tiryns enters with astonishment and some anxiety the strange gallery which leads directly into the eastern wall from the south. This covered passage has a sharp-pointed roof, made by the convergence of the upper courses of horizontal stones, which gives the appearance of an arch. Six passages, lower than the main gallery, but with similar pointed roofs, now lead from this directly through the eastern wall to the outside of the fortress. This strange gallery and its side passages have been variously explained as storehouses, stables, armories, chambers of the mad daughters of Prœtus, and lastly, by Steffen, as a sort of casemate with covered passages, through which defenders could step out on an outer platform to repel assailants. This last theory is accepted by Dörpfeld as satisfactory in chapter v. In fact, this gallery and two similar covered passages in the southern wall, parallel but at different heights, were the chief support of the theory that in such forts "a vertical lower wall is first built on the rock, and over it there is a vertical upper wall, starting about 6.50 m. behind the former" (p. 182); on the broad level surface of the projecting lower wall the doors of these vaulted passages in the upper wall were supposed to open directly. This manner of construction, which would seem more appropriate to a modern winter health-resort than to the home of Heracles, is shown to be chimerical by the exploration of the hitherto obstructed passages in the southern wall. Here an upper gallery was

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found to be connected by steps with a parallel lower passage, closely resembling that in the eastern wall, having five pointed doors, which it was supposed would open on an uncovered platform above the lower wall. But on clearing these doors of rubbish, they were found to open into "five separate rooms, all of which were once vaulted with colossal stones in ogival form" (p. 319). Inspired by this unexpected discovery, the explorers immediately examined the passages leading from the eastern gallery; and on removing the rubbish it was proved beyond a doubt that these originally led into six closed chambers like the others, and that the whole casemate theory of Steffen was untenable. In figure 132 (p. 334) an inner view of the eastern gallery is given, showing plainly a piece of the wall which separated the first from the second chamber. In figure 129 (p. 324) we see the ground plan of a piece of the outer wall of Byrsa, the citadel of Carthage, in which there is a gallery with side passages leading to closed chambers in arrangement and size very similar to those of Tiryns. Appian is quoted for the statement that in the hollow covered rooms inside of the walls of Carthage there were stables for 300 elephants and more than 4,000 horses, besides quarters for 20,000 infantry and 4,000 cavalry (p. 324). Dörpfeld decides that the chambers at Tiryns were storerooms. If they were lighted and ventilated, they may have been stables, or even soldiers' quarters in time of war, like those at Carthage. As most of the western wall of the upper citadel has been swept away by a landslide, we can never know whether it contained similar galleries and chambers; but we may now fairly presume that this method of building was widely used in Cyclopean walls.

The work of 1885 at Tiryns has disclosed one fact which strikes at the foundation of our previous knowledge of Cyclopean walls. It has always been believed, and perhaps it will always be believed by some, that the outer walls of Tiryns and Mycenæ were built without mortar or cement of any kind, the huge blocks of stone being kept in place by their own weight. This is twice stated by Dörpfeld in chapter v. (pp. 178, 254) as an undoubted fact. But after laying bare the walls to their foundations in 1885 he makes this astounding statement (p. 318):

> "The last excavations have proved that nearly *all the walls*, the outer citadel walls as well as the inner walls of the palace, *were built with clay mortar*. If the portions of the castle wall which were hitherto visible do not show any mortar, but only small stones in the joints between the large blocks, it is the natural consequence of the rain which during thousands of years has struck the wall and washed out the mortar. . . . Almost throughout, wherever we have laid bare pieces of wall which for many centuries had been covered with débris, the mortar within the joints still showed itself well preserved."

The most interesting and the most important result of Dr. Schliemann's excavations at Tiryns is the discovery of the almost complete foundation walls of a large palace of great antiquity, which astonishes us by its many points of agreement with Homeric palaces. Dörpfeld says (p. 178): "In the upper citadel, almost the entire palace, with its gateways, courts, great rooms and chambers, can be distinctly recognized. Most of the walls are still standing, ½ to 1 m. in height; numerous bases of pillars are still in their place, and in the doorways still lie the huge stone door-sills." We will give a brief account of the most important parts of this building, postponing for the present the discussion of its age. We have already mentioned the great roadway on the eastern side, which leads to the open court in the southeast corner of the citadel. In its ascent southward, about sixty feet from its passage through the great outer wall, it passes through a gateway, of which the threshold and two immense door-posts of stone still remain. This gate corresponds, in measurement and position, in many points to the Lions' Gate of Mycenæ, the clear width of the passage (2.86 metres) being precisely the same in both. The double doors, which were of wood, were fastened on the inside by a round bar, for which apertures are found in the upright posts, that on the eastern side allowing the bar to be pushed into the great outer wall. About 110 feet from this gate the road enters the southeast court, the eastern side of which consisted of a portico with columns, directly above the covered gallery already described. Opposite this portico, on the west side of the court, was the chief propylæum or gateway of the palace. This structure, in which we see the Homeric *prothyron*, and also the elements of the Propylæa of the Acropolis of Athens, enclosed a space about 38 feet square, divided in the middle by a wall, in which was the gateway itself with its folding doors. It had two porticoes or vestibules, each supported by two columns between two antæ. The stone bases of all the four columns and of three of the antæ remain in position; but the columns and the antæ themselves, being of wood, were probably burnt when the palace was destroyed, and there is nothing to show the form of either. One portico opened on the court just mentioned, the other on the larger court into which the gateway led, which was evidently the general courtyard of the palace. Little or nothing remains of the ancient buildings on the south and west of this court, and nearly all of the west side has been swept away by the land slide which destroyed most of the outer wall at this point. In the northeast corner is the western portico of the great propylæum just described, and about the middle of the north side is the southern portico of a smaller propylæum, similar in structure to the other, and enclosing a space about 27 feet square, leading to the principal inner court or *aule*. In the palaces described in the 'Odyssey' there is no mention of any outer court with its larger gateway, such as we find at Tiryns, and it would seem that the visitor comes directly to the gateway of the inner court, corresponding to this second *prothyron* of Tiryns. Passing through the outer portico and the gate in the middle wall, we stand in the inner portico within the central court, upon which opened the great hall of the palace. Here stood Athena in the 'Odyssey' (i, 103), "in the *prothyra* of Ulysses, on the threshold of the *aule*," and saw the suitors playing at draughts on the other side of the court, before the palace doors. On the east, south, and west sides, this court was surrounded by porticoes (*aithousai*) with columns. Half of the south side was occupied by the portico of the gateway, with its two columns and their antæ standing in line with the two columns of the portico which filled the other half of this side. The gate was therefore strictly "the gate of the *aithousa*," as well as "the gate of the *aule*," and it is called by both names in the 'Odyssey.' The oft-repeated verse of the 'Odyssey' describing carriages driving "out of the *prothyron* and the resounding *aithousa*" has now a new significance, when we see that the portico of the gateway was a part of the portico of the court. On the right of the gateway, as we enter the court, still stand the massive foundations of a square altar (measuring 10½ by 8½ feet).

The greater part of the north side of the court is occupied by the doorway of the *megaron*, or great hall of the palace, whose stately vestibule, about 31½ feet broad and 16 feet deep (inside), is constructed like the porticoes of the two gateways, with two columns between two antæ, and is raised by two steps above the level of the court. An excellent view of the southwest corner of this vestibule, as it now appears, showing the foundations of the anta (with five dowel-holes to hold the woodwork), the round base of the western column, and the two steps, is given on page 211. This portico, which was called the "*aithousa* of the palace," or simply "*aithousa*," was the colonnade of an anteroom of about the same size and shape, called the *prodomos*. Between the two rooms were three pairs of folding doors, hung on four door-posts, which were deep enough to allow the doors to open flat against them without swinging into the anteroom, and yet so narrow as hardly to obstruct the passage. From the antercom a door 6½ feet broad opens into the *megaron* itself, and a small side-door leads to the rooms on the west. This anteroom, with its portico, was the common sleeping place for guests in the Homeric palace. Here Helen orders beds to be prepared for Telemachus and Nestor's son, when they visited the palace of Menelaus at Sparta. As the two rooms were so closely connected when the six doors were open, and perhaps were not always separated at all, it is not surprising that, when Helen orders the beds to be made "under the *aithousa*," the young princes are said to sleep "in the *prodomos* of the palace" ('Odyssey,' iv, 297, 302). Moreover, as this *aithousa* was distinguished chiefly by its stateliness from the portico of the gateway on the opposite side of the court, it is natural that it should sometimes itself be called a *prothyron* (as in 'Odyssey,' xviii, 101).

BUNYAN.

John Bunyan. His Life, Times, and Work. By John Brown, Minister of the Church at Bunyan Meeting, Bedford. With illustrations by Edward Whymper. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

An incumbency of more than twenty years in Bunyan's pulpit (if the term be not too high for the simple platform of early nonconformist faith) has given the author of this volume a special interest in his subject and ease of access to its materials; and in his treatment he exhibits the research, the closeness of examination, and wariness of inference which denote a trained as well as a scholarly mind. The work, not unlike Masson's 'Milton' in plan, though much less heavily weighted, is the history of a life, of a church, and of a persecution, and in each of its phases strongly illustrates the social condition of the people in the English provincial towns, of which Bedford was an example, during the seventeenth century. In view of the many lives of Bunyan, it seems strange that there should be anything left to glean, more particularly as he interspersed a considerable portion of autobiography in his own published writings; but nearly all of these, as has commonly been the case with the English worthies, have been composed at second-hand from a few old and unsifted authorities. Even Froude, whose narrative is the most capable, will have to learn how unsafe it is to write out of other men's books; for, by the side of this sure-footed investigation, his own easy-going biography seems ludicrously wrong both in its allegations and its tone. An author, however, who has compared the making of histories to the building of card-castles, will not be surprised at the demolition of one of his own structures. It would be tedious to follow the correction of facts from point to point in Minister Brown's narrative, when one can sum it up by allowing at once that this is the first comprehensive and accurate life of Bunyan; but it is of interest to note the very careful proof with which the author sustains Macaulay's assumption that Bunyan served with the Roundheads, instead of the Cavaliers as Froude will have it, and the success with which he disentangles the claims of the county and

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town prisons to the honors of the incarceration, and the quiet truthfulness with which he restores the sober coloring and lively detail to the scenes of the arrest, trial, and confinement of Bunyan, which Froude endeavored to diminish and make pale by a skilful use of political perspective and theological distance.

Mr. Brown has been the first to go to the manuscript storehouses, many of which have only lately been made accessible; and from sources opened by the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts, and from the records of the Lambeth Library, the Bedford archdeaconry, and the archives of the corporation, together with the hitherto unpublished entries of his own church, he has reconstructed the religious state of the poor people of the Lincoln diocese in Bunyan's time, and brought very near to us the look of the lowly life which was the original soil of English dissent and the field of the tinker-preacher's labors. In reading these terse extracts from the old documents—"short and simple annals of the poor," truly—of prayers in the barn and fines in the courthouse, of levies on workmen's tools and old women's chattels, of these families of "the meanest sort," as the Bishop's schedule calls them, whose petty share of poverty was confiscated for the security of a Stuart throne and an Anglican prayer-book—in reading of these things, a chapter of the history of the English people comes out which has been too closely written over with the wit and frolic of Charles's court; and the query as to what became of the Commonwealth when Cromwell died does not seem so wholly unanswerable as the silence of standard history on the point would indicate.

The central figure of this work, however, is John Bunyan, and to him, who seems to have troubled himself little with state affairs, our space must be devoted. The word genius is often used to conceal a puzzle which the critic, through defects of analytic power or sympathetic insight, is unable to solve; but perhaps this short and easy method was never more feebly resorted to than when a writer, with a strong prejudice in favor of sweetness and light, described Bunyan as a "Philistine of genius." In this designation there is much darkness and some acerbity. The wonderful thing about this man was not so much his gifts as the strange combination of them. There must be, of course, something extraordinary in any common man who becomes a leader in the higher life of the race. The history of the Church, however, is starred with the names of the ignorant and the humble who, since the fishermen were called from their nets by Galilee, have been chosen to be shepherds of the flock and evangelists of the faith. Bunyan was visited with the experience of Protestant Christendom, of which the successive terms are an outraged conscience, an offended God, and a miraculous pardon, and when he came to his peace he spread the glad news, acceptably to the pious and convincingly to the impenitent; but tens of thousands in Christian lands have passed through that same strait gate, and hundreds of them have discovered that they possessed the gift of tongues. Had Bunyan done no more his sermons would have turned to yellow dust long ago, and his memory would be treasured only by a sect, for, eloquent as he was, he was not one of the missionaries who are world-famous. He wrote a book; and it turned out that this book of an uneducated man was a great literary classic. Had he written an epic it would have seemed less marvellous, because there is a popular superstition that nature makes poets, but in prose does not enter into competition with the common school. Bunyan wrote verses, it is true, and the man who set the delectable mountains on the rim of earth had the magical sight; but just as surely his doggerel shows that he had not the singing voice. He was a master of prose, and wrote a book that neighbors the Bible in our religious homes. Whence he derived his skill, how he built his book, are questions which this biography does not explicitly answer, but some help toward an understanding of his exceptional success is given, and the truth that is brought out is, *mutatis mutandis*, of a wide application in literary methods.

Two things are, of course, indispensable to a boy of genius—imagination and the gift of expression. Now Bunyan was fond of representing himself as very wicked in youth; and so he was, from his own point of view. The record of his deeds, however, would not make an exciting Penny Dreadful. The worst he can say for himself is, that he lied and swore, without malice or injury to others, but because he had a talent for tales and oaths. It is not trifling to remark that his powers of invention and forcible Saxon speech appear to have found their first channel in this sort of mental activity. The possible openings for the development of genius in the tinker's cottage at Bedford were few. It is plain that the mind of the young man was one of intense life, and, in the lack of guidance and knowledge, wandered at random or turned to feed upon itself. The only intellectual or moral ideas that came to him were conveyed from the Bible, mostly through the medium of the parish church in the years of the Puritan ascendency. The commonplace that the Bible affords a good education, especially on the imaginative and moral sides, is true, and the theology that attaches to it has developed strong intellects; it was, in the end, the total book-culture of Bunyan—all that he knew of that vast and various world. But in the primary classes it is not a simple text-book of life, especially for a boy of genius who is all sense, all spirit. Bunyan in after years did not regret his first lessons; he preached that children should be taught the terrors of the law. Certainly his own mind laid hold of the easily apprehended images of threatened vengeance, and was filled with vague alarm and driven to a torturing scrutiny of his own spirit. The experience of conversion repeats in the individual the religious history of the race in the same order in which it is developed in the evolution of Biblical thought itself, and Bunyan's case was not substantially different from that of others, Puritan or Catholic, to whom there is no Calvary without a Sinai. The peculiarity lay in the soil into which this fiery seed was sown. His imagination ceased its childish fabling and became visionary; he saw, as the eye sometimes will, his mind-pictures, and this the more readily because his uneducated mind was accustomed to move through concrete ideas, and hence would be characterized by a high visualizing power. That this was a marked trait of his mental habit is shown by the fact, to which Froude calls attention, that all his stories about himself are localized in a distinctly remembered place.

At this stage his mind approached the danger-line of religious madness: his descriptions of his moods, of his despairs, and his struggles with fancies whose importance to his intellectual life arose from the fewness of his ideas and the limited field of their play, show that he had no power over his thoughts, that he had not learned to use his will in thinking. This objectivity of his religious experience and his powerlessness before it, which have been recorded of other intense lives likewise, gave him a strong sense of the reality of spiritual things; and when he at last had laid his doubts and come into the calm, he kept this conviction to such a degree that earthly matters, even when religion was largely interested in politics, seemed of no consequence: this world was the dream, and the next world the truth. To our days the account of this conversion seems to indicate a lack of sanity, a spirit touched with the fever that ends in fanaticism; but we may be sure that to his hearers there was nothing incredible in it, nothing that could not be paralleled out of what they had known in themselves or heard from their neighbors. So, early in life, the plot of his career was brought to its crisis, and the remainder of his years followed from it as naturally as the last acts of "Lear" from the first. In this faith in the reality of eternal things his mind reached its growth, and afterward knew no change.

But with this sure hold on the spirit and its high concerns there went a perfect realism. Bunyan was the opposite of a mystic. His common sense in his sermons of advice is extraordinarily close-packed and hard, and exhibits acute observation of the ways of human nature in practical life. He wrote once what was almost a novel, a history of one Mr. Badman, which is probably truer to contemporary life than the adventures of Jonathan Wild in the next century. If he did not weaken his eyesight over books, he sharpened it on men and women. All his volumes abound with anecdotes and incidents which he had evidently seen in the town streets or by the roadside, and with phrases and proverbial sayings close to the soil. Not the least agreeable of the signs of this realism, this sight for the bare fact in sense alone, are those descriptions of the country, of the birds, and flowers, and fields, and the simple cheerfulness of them to the country-born boy, which strew his pages from cover to cover. So, when he came to write his great book, he united in a perfectly natural way, and without forethought, the reality of a journey on earth with that of the search for heaven. The success with which, in a literary work, truth is fused with fact, is a measure of genius. It is, perhaps, more striking in this case because the work is an allegory, which is usually so drearily pale a kind of composition. The characters and action of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' on the contrary, are a transcript of life, so vivid that it cannot wear out. It is not more realistic, however, than other portions of Bunyan's voluminous writings, in which one may get an idea of English provincial character of high historical value and human interest. How close, how truthful to his surroundings he was as a literary workman, is brought home with great force, though perhaps unconsciously, by the view which this biography gives of Bedford things and people.

After all, one is almost inclined to say that no man ever owed more to his limitations. Within his bounds, Bunyan used all his spiritual and earthly experience, and, aided by a native gift of imagination and of fluency in the people's speech, blended them, and poured the full fountain of his life through his books. Had his youth included other powerful elements of emotion and knowledge besides his conversion, had theology, or learning, or wider duties removed him somewhat more from the life of his neighbors and friends and the folk of the diocese, of which he was jestingly called the bishop, he might have found so complete self-expression a more difficult task. As it was, he told all he had to tell—told the highest truth in the commonest words and made it current. It is curious to observe that he exhibits no consciousness that he is writing a great work; he speaks of a rush of thought and fancy, and an attractiveness in the subject, but he does not seem to think that he is doing more than adding another to the two-score publications he has already sent out. It is noticeable, too, that he did not meditate upon it for years beforehand, nor spend more than a few months in its composition. Some passages were added at a later time, but as a whole it was a spontaneous and rapid composition. The reason is that he was ripe for it. Without knowing it, he had been working up to this crowning book, both

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thought, treatment, and style, through many years of sincere and straightforward, face-to-face conversation with men and women whom he was endeavoring to guide in the way which he had travelled. It appears now that the 'Pilgrim's Progress' was in fact begun during the third short imprisonment of Bunyan, passed in the town jail, the place which tradition has always pointed out as the allegoric "Den," and was finished shortly after his release. It has been called the last book that was written without the fear of the reviewer; it is of more consequence that it is one of the few works that have been composed without ambition.

Bunyan's memory is singularly agreeable. Personally he was free from the defects of assumption, dogmatism, and spiritual pride which entered largely into the religious character of his epoch, and his sensitive conscience seems to have kept him humble after he had won a name. The two great elements of his work—the homely quality and the Christian quality—were deep-seated in his nature, and give him charm. In an age of sectaries he was not a narrow bigot, and did not stickle for meaningless things; and in a time of political strife growing out of religious differences, and though himself a sufferer by twelve years' imprisonment in early manhood, he did not confuse heaven with any fantastic monarchy or commonwealth of Christ in London, nor show any rancor or revengeful spirit as a subject. It is worth remembering that out of Puritanism, which is regarded as a narrow creed and life, came the only book since the Reformation which has been acceptable to the whole of Christendom, and is still regarded as the substantial truth of the Christian life in all the churches that preach it under any creed of orthodoxy. The life of the man who could evolve such a story must have been very simply typical of the Christian life itself. "A Philistine of genius"—is there no light nor sweetness in this?

RECENT FRENCH BOOKS.

THREE interesting studies upon the Russian writers, Gogol, Turgeneff, and Leo Tolstoi, have been recently published by M. Ernest Dupuy, under the title, 'Les grands Maîtres de la littérature russe au dix-neuvième siècle' (Paris: Lecène et Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof). The volume has for a subtitle, 'Les Prosateurs,' which implies a promise for the future of further essays in the same direction. The moment is propitious for such a publication. The remarkable series of articles upon contemporary Russian writers published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by the Vicomte Eugène-Melchior de Vogüé, during the last few years, has been almost a revelation to the world of the literary wealth of Russia. Turgeneff, indeed, had been long known, if not very widely read outside of a small circle of appreciative admirers, and there were still vague echoes of the admiration with which Mérimée had written of Pushkin and of Gogol many years ago. But the articles of M. de Vogüé aroused a new interest, not only in the earlier writers, who were almost forgotten, but even in Turgeneff himself, whose death was the occasion of the publication of the first of the series, and in Tolstoi, who was almost unknown, even by name, outside of Russia. A little more than a year ago a translation into French of 'War and Peace,' one of the two great works of Tolstoi, was republished in Paris from the St. Petersburg edition of ten years before. This publication was preceded, only a few days earlier, by M. de Vogüé's article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* upon Count Leo Tolstoi. The story of the enthusiasm with which the new writer was received does not need to be told here. It is certain that M. de Vogüé's admirable article upon Tolstoi had much to do with the attention given to 'La Guerre et la Paix' upon its first appearance, for no other translation of a Russian story, though several had appeared in Paris since the days of Mérimée, had ever made any impression upon the world. Since then, however, every new translation has been widely read, and criticised in a sympathetic and generally appreciative spirit by the literary authorities in Parisian journalism, and (a still more remarkable evidence of the depth of the impression produced) many of the most promising of the younger writers especially show unmistakable signs of the influence exercised over them by the charm of the newly discovered Russian literature.

The studies of M. Ernest Dupuy upon the three great masters of the literature of modern Russia are both interesting and valuable even beside those of M. de Vogüé. In some respects M. Dupuy seems to have a finer sense of the more imaginative portions of their works, to be better able to disengage himself from the bonds of those literary opinions which have been strengthening for centuries in western Europe, and to look upon the new literature with more unprejudiced eyes than any of his predecessors. This is especially noticeable in the chapters upon Gogol, and in those portions of his work relating to what has been called the mysticism of Tolstoi. The evanescent charm of Gogol's poetic rendering of the legends of his Cossack ancestors especially is conveyed by M. Dupuy's necessarily slight sketches with a delicate insight that no other writer has shown. What he has to say about the moral and religious teachings of Tolstoi is more nearly just than anything that has appeared from the most eminent of the critics who have treated the subject. 'Ma Religion' is spoken of with the respect that it deserves, and it is summarized almost without prejudice. Probably no one to whom its central doctrine of non-resistance was entirely unfamiliar could have written more moderately. The work is sufficiently comprehensive to give to its readers a very fair appreciation of the imaginative literature of modern Russia, and at the same time short and clear enough not to repel them by a too exhaustive study of the authors chosen. M. Dupuy is as yet but little known, but this work is certainly a very promising beginning in literary criticism for a writer who, as M. Louis Léger, the Slavic scholar, says in the *Revue Critique*, has taken the pains to learn Russian in order to read in the original the authors who have delighted him.

The enthusiasm with which 'La Guerre et la Paix' was everywhere received was renewed toward the end of last summer by the publication in Paris of the long-expected translation of the second of Tolstoi's great works, 'Anna Karénine' (Paris: Hachette; New York: Christern). This had been originally published in a Russian periodical, apparently abandoned by the author in the midst of the story, and, after an interval of months, resumed and finally completed only in 1877. 'Anna Karénine' is at once the crown and the conclusion of the literary life of its author. Since its publication Tolstoi has abandoned his art for religion, as earlier in life he abandoned the world of St. Petersburg and Moscow and all the literary and social habits of his previous existence to retire to his estate in the country, where he has now lived for more than twenty years, writing, educating his children, ameliorating the condition of the peasants around him in every way, and passing through all the mental and moral vicissitudes which he has pictured so vividly in Prince Andrew Bolkonsky, in Peter Besoukhoff, and especially in Constantine Levine. 'Anna Karénine' represents the feelings and opinions of Tolstoi during this later period of his life, as 'War and Peace' represents those of his military service during the Crimean war and of the years immediately following it, and as his first story, 'The Cossacks,' which was translated into English a few years ago by Mr. Eugene Schuyler, represents those of the earliest years of his manhood in the Caucasus. While all these books are written in a singularly impersonal manner, the impression made by the writer's individuality gradually deepens, leaving the reader in the end under the charm of a nobility and grandeur in the author and in his work such as no other fiction produces. M. de Vogüé says that after reading Tolstoi other novels seem feeble, false, and wearisome. This will not appear extravagant to those who have read 'La Guerre et la Paix' and 'Anna Karénine.' In the mind of the author, neither of them is a novel in the ordinary sense of the word. 'La Guerre et la Paix' is an exposition of a passage in the philosophical history of humanity; 'Anna Karénine' is an essay in the highest intellectual morality.

About the time that 'La Guerre et la Paix' appeared in Paris, a translation of one of the works of another Russian, Feodor Mikhailovitch Dostoyevsky, was published there. 'Humiliés et Offensés' made but little impression, however, until after M. de Vogüé's article upon its author appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, early in 1885. Just before this time a second work by Dostoyevsky, 'Crime and Chastisement,' was translated by M. Victor Derély and appeared under the title 'Le Crime et le Châtiment.' It cannot be said that the new writer has delighted his readers as Tolstoi did; but he has been read with surprise and emotion, and the sensation he has produced has been powerful if not always pleasant. Both these books are startling from their unlikeness to all other modern literature. We must go very far back, to some of the early French poets, Villon, for example, for a note at all like what we find here, and even then it is not persistent, dominating all the rest as in Dostoyevsky. To tell the story of either is an injustice, and conveys no idea of the spirit of the books. The interest is always great, sometimes painful, but it never depends upon the events which are occurring in themselves. It comes always from the manner in which, slowly, imperceptibly, the whole mind and soul of the principal personage unfold, develop, assimilate from every external circumstance something which becomes a part of themselves. 'Crime et Châtiment,' which has been called the most profound study in criminal psychology that has been written since "Macbeth," is a relation of the long struggle in a human soul between reason and conscience, between the mental powers and the moral instincts. A sentence very near the end of the book marks the culmination of this struggle: "La vie s'était substituée chez lui au raisonnement," but the idea is there from the beginning, especially in the characters of the women, in that of Sonia above all the rest. The kindred idea of the absolute moral superiority of the humble or the suffering over the strong in body or mind, of the moral danger of intellectual cultivation, is one of the characteristic ideas of Russian writers. Another similar idea, to which Dostoyevsky frequently returns, is what M. de Vogüé has called "the fundamental conception of Christianity among the Russian people," the efficacy of suffering in itself, above all of suffering in common with others.

French readers and still less English ones could hardly be expected to enjoy, unprepared, such books as 'Humiliés et Offensés' and 'Crime et Châtiment,' but no one could read them under any circumstances without the feeling that here was a strange and powerful manifestation of the genius of a race almost unknown to western civilization. The experience of the readers of Scott's and Coleridge's and Mme. de Staël's time, when German literature was first revealed to them, must have resembled in some respects that

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of the present day with Russian writers. Now, however, the charm of strangeness and remoteness is intensified; the race is a different one from our own, more primitive, with ways of living and thinking and feeling often very far from anything in our experience, sometimes opposed to our most cherished opinions and beliefs. Often the things that to them are a mere matter of course shock us, or, it may be, charm us by their strangeness; as frequently what with them is revolutionary and subversive of the very foundations of government and religion, is with us the simplest matter of every-day life. The vagueness of our knowledge of all that belongs to Russia gives a corresponding poetic coloring to what we read, and adds to its charm. As we become more familiar with these strange writers, what impresses us most strongly in all of them, unlike as they are to each other, is a certain simplicity and grandeur of soul, a tenderness of nature, an inclination towards unbounded self-sacrifice, which is all as new to us as it is attractive. In none of them are these peculiarly Russian characteristics more striking than in the author of 'Crime et Châtiment.'

Feodor Mikhailovitch Dostoyevsky is a strange and tragic figure. This powerful and entirely exceptional writer threw his whole being into his books in a manner that partly explains his wonderful influence over the imagination of his readers. It is not his experience which he presents, nor his opinions and beliefs; it is his whole soul, his sympathies, his visions, and his agonies—all the chaos of a tender, pitiful heart, filled with compassion for the *humiliés* and the *offensés* of the world of suffering in which his life was spent. Tortured from youth by a distressing nervous malady, by years of the bitterest poverty and struggle, of prison and exile and silence, his life was as strange as his books, and reads like a legend of the temptations and trials of some Oriental saint, and its close needs only a few added touches to complete the story with a veritable apotheosis. Among the most interesting pages of M. de Vogüé's article upon Dostoyevsky are those relating to his influence over the people, "le commun des hommes," "toutes les classes qui ne sont plus le peuple, et ne sont pas encore la bourgeoisie." In 1880, at the inauguration of Pushkin's monument, at which all the representatives of Russian literature were assembled, the popularity of Dostoyevsky overshadowed that of all his rivals. The people sobbed while he spoke; they took forcible possession of the platform in order to approach him, to touch him; young men fainted with emotion when they succeeded in coming near him. "Turgeneff has never had anything but a literary and artistic prestige," says M. de Vogüé; "Tolstoi only a philosophical influence—he addresses only the intellect. Dostoyevsky took possession of the heart, and his share in the direction of the contemporary movement has been incomparably the greatest."

Prince Kropotkin has just been discharged from prison after nearly three years of confinement, having been condemned for five years after the disturbances at Lyons. His friend, M. Élisée Reclus, had, as we noticed last week, collected the articles written by him for *Le Révolté* of Geneva from 1879 to 1882, under the title, 'Pierre Kropotkine: Paroles d'un Révolté' (Paris: New York: Christern). Those who have read 'Underground Russia' will remember Stepniak's warm tribute to this agitator, whom he calls "the most sincere and frank of men." The difference between the ultimate ideal of Tolstoi, as shown in 'Ma Religion,' and that of Kropotkin does not appear to be materially great. Both dream of an ideal future when all rule and authority shall have disappeared, and yet what a difference between the two men. Tolstoi is an apostle of love, whose doctrine of non-resistance relies only upon persuasion and the personal example of self-abnegation; Kropotkin is a man of violence, ready and eager to destroy and burn and kill whatever stands in the way of his ultimate aim. He admits "no departure from the ultra-anarchical programme." Those who wish to see this programme stated in full on many points will find it in the 'Paroles d'un Révolté' in all its brutality. The unity of this strange book lies, its editor, M. Reclus, tells us, in the "vehemence of the thought." Kropotkin may be an orator, he is no logician. He relies on the intensity of his own emotions to carry away his readers. He scarcely ever stops to prove his assertions. "There can be no doubt," "it must be admitted," "can it be denied?" are the forms of speech that recur frequently. This, together with a certain declamatory tone, makes of the book rather a curiosity than a serious exposition of the great social problems with which it deals.

The new volume of Prince J. Lubomirski, 'Une Religion nouvelle: Le Christianisme légal' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern), deals with subjects which it would be out of place to discuss here. The nature of the work may be surmised from the titles of the two books of which it is a continuation: 'Autour de Jérusalem: Le Christianisme et la Société,' and 'Jérusalem: Un incrédule en terre sainte.' The main idea of 'Une Religion nouvelle' seems to be that many things heretofore considered as essentially a part of religion have nothing to do with it, "et que le christianisme a toujours été une erreur philosophique."

G. CURTIUS'S LAST WORK.

Zur Kritik der neuesten Sprachforschung. Von Georg Curtius. Leipzig: S. Hirzel. 1885.

THE death of Curtius gives a pathetic interest to this his last piece of scientific work. In a little volume of 160 pages he takes up and discusses the points at issue between the old and the new school in comparative philology. He attempts to show that the radicalism of the neogrammarians, with their contemptuous treatment of the older doctrines, is hasty and scientifically ill-grounded. Not that he utterly repudiates the work of the *nuova fede;* he finds in it, on the contrary, much that is good, and he takes an obvious delight in pointing out how much of this good is really to be found in his own writings. But after all, he finds the new school beset with difficulties. To use a figure for which he is not responsible, they have vociferously jumped out of here and there an old frying-pan, and now find themselves for the most part in an entirely new fire, the scorching qualities of which, as might be imagined, Professor Curtius does not allow to go undescribed. He makes a specialty also of illustrating the often fundamental lack of harmony among the votaries of the new faith itself.

There are in the main, according to Curtius, four points in which the break of the new school with the past is most conspicuous. The first concerns what are called the laws of phonetic change. The dogma of the younger school is, that these laws are absolutely without exception. Such a principle is obviously of far-reaching importance in etymologizing. It means, when rigorously applied, that if, in two cognate languages, we alight upon two words that present to us a suspicion of historical connection, the idea of such connection must be summarily, or at least provisionally, rejected, if one of the words is found to deviate in the least from the laws of phonetic correspondence that have been found to obtain as between the two languages; provided, of course, that we cannot "explain" the deviation as due to the operation of some special cause. To illustrate: Has the English word *eye,* descended from the Anglo-Saxon *ēage* and cognate to the German *Auge,* any connection with the Latin *oculus?* Here the austere phonologist is compelled to answer, No; a word akin to the Latin *oculus* would not appear in Anglo-Saxon as *ēage.* But, on the other hand, such connection would seem to be on general grounds eminently probable. A large number of words descriptive of bodily organs are undoubtedly the same in the two languages; for example: *armus: arm, auris: ear, cor: heart, dens: tooth, gena: chin, genu: knee, nasus: nose, pes: foot,* etc. In view of this fact it appears pedantic and finical to insist that *oculus* and *ēage* can have nothing to do with each other, especially since the phonetic difficulty is, on the face of it, so small. In regard to these words, then, the old school admitted the connection, and simply postulated an "exception" to the usual laws of phonetic correspondence. The new school must either repudiate the connection, or say that it "remains to be proved." The dictionaries teem with cases of this kind, which Curtius explained as instances of "sporadic change." (It ought to be said in passing that the particular case we have chosen does not, for reasons that need not be discussed here, figure in Curtius's illustrations of sporadic change). But the new school insist that there is not and cannot be any such thing as sporadic change.

In the work before us Curtius returns to and defends his own construction of the matter, but, as it seems to us, in spite of our great admiration for the man and his work, not with entire success. For the dogma of the neogrammarians means after all only this: that for every process of phonetic change, as for every other fact in nature or in history, there is a sufficient cause. It may be that the cause is obscure. It may have lain in some fact that has utterly dropped out of our historical purview, and may be, therefore, with our best efforts irrecoverable. But a cause there was, and we shall, on the whole, do better, as a matter of scientific method, to insist severely upon some explanation of every apparent irregularity than calmly to admit into our scientific fold a herd of facts which we are compelled to label as absolutely anomalous. In other words, the axiom of the new school is in theory correct, and in practice may be made to subserve a useful purpose in promoting scientific rigor. But having said this, we wish also to say that the votaries of the new school are not as a rule any more scientifically rigorous than was Professor Curtius. It is only that their rigor, as well as their vigor, is of a little different kind.

The second point at issue concerns the value of analogy as an explanation of the apparent anomalies of phonetic change. Of this principle the elder philologists made but sparing use; the younger employ it with much readiness. To explain a difficult word-form as due to the analogy (*i. e.*, to the attracting influence) of some other word or group of words, used to be thought permissible only as a last resort; but with the new school, or at least with some of them, this has come to be a favorite method of explanation. In the mind of one enthusiast analogy has undergone a formal apotheosis, and he describes it or her as a "benign daughter of heaven" (*eine segensreiche Himmelstochter*). To Professor Curtius and, we confess, to ourselves also, this new goddess seems, like so many other feminine divinities, somewhat capricious in her operations. Under her auspices most things in philology become easy and all things possible. Is not *oculus* akin to *ēage* after all, and has not the one word or the other been perturbed from its proper phonetic orbit by the influence of some other word of similar sound? We do not remember to have seen

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precisely this idea suggested, but not a little that seems to us equally shaky can be found in the literature of recent philology. Curtius's good-natured polemic against the excesses of the analogy-hunters is quite in place.

The third matter discussed is the question whether the Indo-European parent speech possessed the short vowels *e* and *o*. The old view was that it did not, and the converse of this view is one of the most widely accepted distinctive doctrines of the new school. Curtius sums up the arguments pro and con, and concludes that the now dominant theory is no better as a working hypothesis than the former one; it may have proved helpful, he admits, in Europe, but it is a stumbling-block in Asia Into the merits of this question, which is at least considerably more important than it might seem to the unphilological reader, we cannot enter. The arguments of Curtius are certainly not without force; but that they will change, or that, upon the whole, they deserve to change, the present attitude of scholarship, few specialists will be found to admit. The final chapter of our book deals with the reluctance of the younger philologists to enter upon what are called, somewhat ponderously, glottogonic speculations. Twenty years ago many, perhaps most, comparative philologists thought they were in a fair way to find out how our Indo-European speech was originally put together—to discover the precise meaning, that is to say, not only of its roots, but also of its person and case endings, and its whole formative apparatus. Now complete agnosticism reigns with regard to these matters, as with regard to ultimate questions in so many other departments of thought. How long this *Nichtwisserei* will last in philology, whether it will endure through the century or even through another decade, it would be idle to attempt to foretell. Curtius thought that the present generation was over-cautious in this matter, and that at least a small part of the earlier "glottogony" will still pass muster. However one may think of this, it certainly is true that these questions of origin, if we could hope to find satisfactory answers to them, would be precisely the most interesting questions of comparative philology.

In our meagre review of Curtius's last work, it has been our chief aim merely to give an account of the veteran philologist's final attitude upon the pivotal questions of his science. For anything more than that, especially for any real discussion of his views upon their merits, or of the rejoinders which have already been made and will doubtless be made hereafter, this was not the place. It only remains to add a word concerning the admirable style and method of the book. Here, all unabated, is the old artistic clearness of exposition, and here is the very temper in which a great scholar might well wish to pass from his labors. This last little book, like the former greater ones, evinces not only thoroughness and intellectual keenness—qualities that are common enough, as all the world knows, among German scholars; it shows us also a placid and genial mind, a controlling sense of scientific decorum, a serene superiority to acrimonious contention, and a singleness of devotion to the cause of science. These qualities are not universal among German philologists, although in the possession of such traits there is one imperial German model. With the name of Jacob Grimm posterity need not shrink from coupling that of Georg Curtius.

The Principles of Expression in Pianoforte Playing. By Adolph F. Christiani. Harper & Bros.

THE circumstances under which this book appears are so sad as to invest it with a sentimental personal interest that would mollify adverse criticism, were it called for, which is by no means the case. On the contrary, the book is one which every pianist in the country, elementary or advanced, should carefully read and take to heart. Twenty years ago the author, who was one of the most esteemed piano teachers of this vicinity, began to meditate on certain problems connected with the proper execution of his art, and concerning which there was a remarkable absence of information in musical text-books. Five years ago he began to devote all his leisure time to putting his thoughts into shape on paper; and after much trouble in securing a subscription list large enough to tempt a publisher, the work was at last on the point of appearing when the author suddenly died.

The subject is one which is neglected even by many public performers and intelligent amateurs who ought to know the value and charm of expression in music. Many, from mere carelessness, pay hardly any heed to the numerous signs of shading, in time and loudness, sudden or gradual, momentary or prolonged, with which musical scores, especially those of the modern schools, abound. This class of musicians, even though they should be familiar with most of the principles explained in Christiani's book, would usefully learn from it the futility of mere execution, without intellectual and emotional expression. Facile execution, in fact, has become such an every-day affair that critics at the present day take it for granted in a concert-giver, and devote their attention almost entirely to considering how far he has mastered the principles of expression, as explained in Mr. Christiani's work.

Among the lessons which the author impresses on the pupil's memory are the necessity of accenting discords, and the reasons why; the abomination of playing accompaniments and accompanying parts so loud that the leading melody is drowned; the importance of emphasizing hidden melodic strains—analogous to the new light thrown on a poetic line by the accents of an intelligent actor; the necessity of distinctly bringing out the basses, etc. One of the best chapters is that which explains the peculiarities of accents in national dances—Austrian, Polish, Spanish, Hungarian, and Scotch. Certain proposed emendations in the notation of pianoforte music are very sensible. Some of the greatest composers have often adopted a needlessly complicated and obscure mode of writing down their thoughts, as is shown by numerous quotations in musical type, placed side by side with a simplified version. A clear understanding of this matter will convince amateurs that in buying their music they can save themselves many misconceptions and much useless study by choosing not the cheapest editions, but those which bear the names of the best editors, as, for instance, Bülow's edition of Beethoven's sonatas, and Klindworth's edition of Chopin. On page 80, however, Mr. Christiani goes too far in his proposed simplification of the notation of Schumann's "Faschingsschwank." It is a subtle point that cannot be explained in a few words, but to our feeling the passage loses its rhythmic peculiarity by the alteration suggested.

About one-half of Mr. Christiani's book is taken up with well-chosen illustrations in musical type. The text is divided into very short paragraphs—almost to a comical excess in some instances. There is a German tendency toward too much classification and subdivision, but the language is always clear, and has that directness which only a teacher can give who has for years endeavored to make himself intelligible to pupils who are often obtuse. This necessity probably induced him to give the following graphic and amusing illustration of a fundamental law in music, that an ascending melody or passage demands a crescendo, and a descending melody or passage a diminuendo:

"I remember a little scene at a European fish-market. One of the fishwives said something which displeased another one. A quarrel ensued. Immediately a crescendo of both their voices commenced, not only by an increase of lung-power, but by a simultaneous rising in pitch of the voice, until, at the climax, the loudest as well as the highest screaming was attained. At that moment a well-dressed customer approached, and, as business was paramount to passion, the women instantly calmed down. The voices fell in a surprisingly short diminuendo both in pitch and power, and the height of crescendo was succeeded by a sudden lull."

The Fall of Constantinople: Being the story of the Fourth Crusade. By Edwin Pears, LL.B., Barrister-at-law, late President of the European bar at Constantinople, and Knight of the Greek Order of the Saviour. Harper & Bros. 8vo, pp. 422.

MR PEARS, a long resident of Constantinople, has written an excellent history of one of the most important events in its annals—the capture of the city by the crusaders in 1204, which he considers "the necessary prelude to the Ottoman conquest in 1453." "Constantinople had been for centuries," he says, "the strongest bulwark of defence against Asia." Its capture at this time "was the cause which brought about the fall of the Roman Empire in the East, and rendered its ultimate capture by the Turks both certain and easy." While, however, he points out the fatal weakening of the Empire which resulted from this conquest, he shows at great length the pre-existing causes of weakness which made it fall an easy prey to this attack—causes so serious as to make one question whether the blow received at this time was in reality so vital. As a matter of fact, the resistance in 1453 seems to have been fully as vigorous as that in 1204. These causes, by the way, are described in five chapters, which treat respectively of the Seljukin Turks, the neighbors on the north, dynastic troubles, the previous crusades, and Western enemies, in relation to the weakening of the Empire. These chapters present the results of careful study, and are severally excellent discussions of their subject. But they suffer for want of a general view. If another chapter had been inserted at the beginning, giving a brief general sketch of the history of the Empire during the twelfth century, it would have made these chapters much clearer, and it need not have added much to the bulk of the book, because it would have prevented the necessity of some repetitions, and would have allowed greater compression. Mr. Pears is himself so much at home in the confused annals of this century that it does not occur to him that some of his readers may not be as familiar with the houses of Commenos and Angelos as with the Bourbons and Hapsburgs.

After describing these causes of weakness, in five long chapters, occupying nearly half of the volume, he disposes of the crusade in eleven shorter chapters, and it is one of the most lamentable and discreditable events in history. The great body of the crusaders are shown to have been sincerely anxious to carry out their vows, and indignant at the miscarriage of their enterprise; but they were caught in a trap, and found themselves, through the perfidy and selfish ambition of their leaders, forced to help in the abhorred work of capturing two Christian cities, one after the other. And the events of the final capture and sack of Constantinople afford another humiliating illustration of the ease with which men, when they have once compromised with their sense of right, fall into deeper and deeper shame and sin. "Never in Europe was a work of pillage more systematically and shamelessly carried out. Never by the

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army of a Christian State was there a more barbarous sack of a city than that perpetrated by these soldiers of Christ, sworn to chastity, pledged before God not to shed Christian blood, and bearing upon them the emblem of the Prince of Peace." "Their abstinence and their chastity once abandoned, they plunged at once into orgies of every kind" (p. 354).

The responsibility for the change of plan which converted a hopeful crusade into a mere enterprise of greed and ambition, is by our author divided between three or four; but it appears to rest chiefly upon the Venetian Republic, with their doge, Henry Dandolo. The Republic had made a contract to transport the crusaders to Egypt for a certain sum; but a large number of the crusaders had chosen to embark at a different port, so that not enough were gathered at Venice to fill the ships provided, nor had they the money to fulfil their part of the contract. Under these circumstances the capture of Zara in behalf of Venice might perhaps have been pardoned as being a service equivalent to the debt which they owed. The Venetians may have been justified in insisting upon the exact fulfilment of the contract, but for their bad faith in entering into a secret treaty with the Sultan of Egypt, by which they agreed not to transport the crusaders there. This is at least the view adopted by the writer (p. 269), in agreement with Hopf; but it should be noted that it is not accepted by all historians. At any rate, the conduct of the Venetians is in harmony with the theory, as they seem to have in every way evaded the fulfilment of the contract, even after the crusaders, by the capture of Zara, had met their obligations. However this may have been, the leaders of the crusade were themselves hardly less guilty, and Mr. Pears makes it probable that the elected leader, Boniface of Montferrat, had, even before the treachery of the Venetians, entered into a secret agreement with the Emperor Philip to turn the crusade against Constantinople in behalf of the young Prince Alexis, Philip's brother-in-law. Dandolo, too, appears to have had a deep-seated animosity against Constantinople. There seems to have been no other leader prominent enough and energetic enough to withstand the intrigues of these three. Of all the personages active in the affair, Pope Innocent III. is the only one who comes out of it with credit. He protested against the iniquitous scheme at every stage, excommunicated the transgressors, and, when the work was consummated, addressed them a letter of indignant reproach. Nevertheless, he was powerless, and, when it was accomplished, could not help hoping that it would result in healing the schism in Christendom.

Among incidental points of interest we find an account of the system of land-holding in Asia Minor (p. 31); an account of the "Warings" or Varangians, whom the author identifies with the Varini of Tacitus (p. 153); and a description, of considerable value in the history of international law, of the "capitulations" or agreements with foreigners, regulating the conditions under which they have resided in Constantinople, and their rights there. This system appears to have begun with the Warings early in the tenth century, and to have continued to the present day. On page 384 Philip is erroneously called King of Swabia, probably by a slip. Elsewhere he is called Swabian King and Duke or Swabia, both of which titles may be considered correct, as he was Duke of Swabia, and thus a Swabian king of Germany.

A Series of Character Sketches from Dickens, from Original Drawings by Frederick Barnard, reproduced in Photogravure. Cassell & Co. 1885.

THIS is the third series of these interesting studies. The present reproductions by the Goupil process of Mr. Barnard's drawings are certainly better as works of art than the prints of the first series; but whether as character-studies these are as good as the former ones is a different question. The matter of expression in face and gesture is not subject to hard-and-fast rules of excellence, and easily misled are they who mistake their associations and their early conception of a character for demonstrable fact, and look for it in the graphic artist's design. But without falling into Michelet's error of correcting history by the portraits in the Louvre, let us say that Captain Cuttle looks to us shrewd and hard rather than the gentle innocent we find in Dickens; that Micawber is as nearly as possible nobody at all, and Uriah Heep very conventional, to say the least. On the other hand, "Dick Swiveller and the Marchioness" is an admirable design, with the two characters (and those, to us, the most charming in all Dickens's volumes) perfectly seized and capitally rendered. "Bob Cratchet and Tiny Tim" is also an excellent design.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ames, C. G. George Eliot's Two Marriages. 4th ed. Philadelphia: G. H. Buchanan & Co. 20 cents.
Bancroft, H. H. History of Alaska, 1730-1885. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Beattie, F. R. An Examination of the Utilitarian Theory of Morals. Brantford, Ont.: J. & J. Sutherland.
Bookwalter, J. W. Home and International Trade. Brentano Bros. 50 cents.
Bourget, P. Psychologie contemporaine. Boston: Schoenhof.
Browne, Irving. Iconoclasm and Whitewash, and Other Papers. J. O. Wright.
Buchheim, C. A. Modern German Reader. Part II. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Browning, Oscar. The Despatches of Earl Gower, English Ambassador at Paris from June, 1790, to August, 1792. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press.
Channing, W. E. Eliot: a Poem. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Combes, F. Mme. de Sévigné historien. Boston: Schoenhof.
Cummings, E. C. Nature in Scripture: A Study in Bible Verification in the Range of Common Experience. Portland, Me.: Hoyt, Fogg & Donham. $1.50.
Curtis, G. T. McClellan's Last Service to the Republic, together with a Tribute to his Memory. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Dreyspring, E. Easy Lessons in German. D. Appleton & Co.
Daudet, A. Tartarin sur les Alpes. Boston: Schoenhof.
Dunning, Charlotte. Cabin and Gondola: Short Stories. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Eliot, W. G. The Story of Archer Alexander: From Slavery to Freedom, March 30, 1863. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Ellerton, E. A Fatal Resemblance: A Novel. F. P. Lennon.
England, as Seen by an American Banker: Notes of a Pedestrian Tour. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.
Farwell, Mrs. M. E. C. Common Sense in the Care of the Pet Canary. Murray Hill Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Flaubert, Gustave. Oeuvres Complètes. Vol. 6 and last. Trois Contes, suivis de Mélanges inédits. Paris: A. Quantin.
Freeman, H. On Speech Formation as the Basis for True Spelling. London: Trübner & Co.
Fuller, Josephine R. The Haunted Life. [Temperance Library.] Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Gay, Elinor. Skilful Susy: A Book for Fairs and Bazars. Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents.
Gellatly, F. Love made to Order, and Other Comedies. Chicago, O.: Knight & Leonard.
Gilbert, W. S. Original Comic Operas. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Hayes, Henry. The Story of Margaret Kent: A Novel. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
History of the School of the Collegiate Reformed Dutch Church in the City of New York from 1633 to 1883. 2d ed. Board of Publication Reformed Dutch Church. $2.20.
Hall, E. The Master of L'Étrange: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.25.
Hoyt, H. M. Protection versus Free Trade. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Homiletic Review. Vol. X. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Howells, W. D. The Garroters: A Farce. Harper & Bros.
Hittell, T. H. History of California, Vol. I. San Francisco: Occidental Publishing Co. $5.
Johnson, C. F. Three Americans and Three Englishmen: Lectures Read before the Students of Trinity College, Hartford. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Kropotkine, Pierre. Paroles d'un Révolté. F. W. Christern.
Last Days at Arswich: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Lemaître, J. Les contemporains. Boston: Schoenhof.
Leroy-Beaulieu, A. Les Catholiques libéraux. Boston: Schoenhof.
Library of Wonders: The Wonders of Pompeii, by Marc Monnier; Wonders of Acoustics, by Rodolphe Radau; Thunder and Lightning, by W. de Fonvielle. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 each.
Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series, Vol. LII. October, November, December, 1885. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lowe, Charles. Prince Bismarck: An Historical Biography. 2 vols. Cassell & Co. $5.
Lodge, H. C. The Works of Alexander Hamilton. Vol. VI. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Loiseau, A. Histoire de la littérature portugaise. Paris: Thorin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lyford, Rev. C. P. The Mormon Problem: An Appeal to the American People. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Lyall, Edna. Donovan—A Modern Englishman: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Marryat, Captain. Masterman Ready. F. Warne & Co. $2.
Mason, L. W. New Third Music Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
McCarthy, Justin H. England under Gladstone, 1880-1885. Second edition revised and enlarged. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Morrison, D. H. The Treasury of Song for the Home Circle. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros. $2.50.
Murphy, J. N. The Chair of Peter. New ed. Catholic Publication Society.
O'Donoghue, Nannie P. Unfairly Won: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Petit de Julleville, L. Les comédiens en France au moyen-âge. Boston: Schoenhof.
Phelps, A. My Study, and Other Essays. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Piano Classics by the Best Composers. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Porter, R. P. Bread-Winners Abroad. J. S. Ogilvie & Co. $1.
Pressensé, Mme. E. de. Geneviève. Boston: Schoenhof.
Reception Day, No. 4. A Collection of Dialogues, Recitations, etc. E. L. Kellogg & Co. 25 cents.
Ritch, W. G. Aztlan: The History, Resources, and Attractions of New Mexico. 6th ed. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Ritter, F. L. Manual of Musical History. Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Ruskin, J. The King of the Golden River, or the Black Brothers. Classics for Children. Boston: Ginn & Co. 20 cents.
Roe, Mary A. A Long Search. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Russell, W. Clark. In the Middle Watch: Sea Stories. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Vetoes by the Governor of Pennsylvania of Bills Passed by the Legislature at the Session of 1885. Harrisburg: State Printer.

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